

**Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse
Gas Emissions and Sinks:
1990 – 1997**

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Preface

The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) prepares the official *U.S. Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks* to comply with existing commitments under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Under a decision of the UNFCCC Conference of the Parties, national inventories for most UNFCCC Annex I parties should be provided to the UNFCCC Secretariat each year by April 15.

In an effort to engage the public and researchers across the country, the EPA has instituted an annual public review and comment process for this document. The availability of the draft document is announced via Federal Register Notice, and the draft document is posted on the EPA web page.¹ Copies are also mailed upon request. The public comment period is limited to 30 days; however, comments received after the closure of the public comment period are accepted and considered for the next edition of this annual report. The EPA's policy is to allow at least 60 days for public review and comment when proposing new regulations or documents supporting regulatory development (unless statutory or judicial deadlines make a shorter time necessary), and 30 days for non-regulatory documents of an informational nature such as the Inventory document.

¹ See <http://www.epa.gov/globalwarming/inventory>

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Changes in This Year's U.S. Greenhouse Gas Inventory Report

Each year the EPA not only revises the estimates presented in the official *U.S. Greenhouse Gas Inventory of Emissions and Sinks* but also attempts to improve the analyses themselves through the use of better methods or data. A summary of the latest changes and additions to this report is provided below:

- An expanded discussion of emissions from International Bunker Fuels has been included in the Energy chapter. Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs from these fuels have been estimated for the first time. Carbon dioxide emissions from aircraft have nearly doubled because of the inclusion of fuels consumed by foreign flagged air carriers for the first time. Previously, only U.S. flagged air carriers were able to be included. A new source of data for consumption of fuels for marine bunkers has also resulted in minor changes in the estimates from ships and boats.
- Nitrous oxide emissions from the combustion of jet fuel in aircraft were estimated for the first time using a simplified methodology based on the emission factors presented in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997).
- A new comparison of recent trends in various environmental and economic variables related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions is presented in Box 1-1.
- An new analysis of sectoral (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, and electric utility) carbon intensities and emission trends from CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion is presented in Box 2-1.
- Carbon stored through the non-energy uses of fossil fuels was given a more detailed treatment in Table 2-5 and Table 2-6.
- The estimates for CO₂ emissions from Natural Gas Flaring were revised slightly and made more consistent with methane emission estimates under the venting portion of Petroleum Systems.
- Wood consumed as fuel is no longer reported by EIA separately for the commercial and residential end-use sectors; therefore, CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from wood burned under Stationary Sources for these two sectors were not disaggregated by end-use sector.
- Estimates of potential emissions for select HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ sources have been presented for the first time in Box 3-1.
- Nitrous oxide emission estimates from Agricultural Soil Management have been revised to account for the application of additional quantities of animal manure applied to soils. This revision was based on a better understanding of the ultimate fate of unmanaged animal manure.
- Useful constants, unit definitions, and conversion factors have been included for the first time in Annex Q. A list of abbreviations and chemical symbols has also been included in Annex R and Annex S, respectively.
- A detailed glossary of terms related to greenhouse gas emissions and inventories has been provided for the first time in Annex T.

Executive Summary

Central to any study of climate change is the development of an emissions inventory that identifies and quantifies a country's primary anthropogenic¹ sources and sinks of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. This inventory adheres to both (1) a comprehensive and detailed methodology for estimating sources and sinks of anthropogenic greenhouse gases, and (2) a common and consistent mechanism that enables signatory countries to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to compare the relative contribution of different emission sources and greenhouse gases to climate change. Moreover, systematically and consistently estimating national and international emissions is a prerequisite for evaluating the cost-effectiveness and feasibility of mitigation strategies and emission reduction technologies.

This chapter summarizes the latest information on U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emission trends from 1990 through 1997. To ensure that the U.S. emissions inventory is comparable to those of other UNFCCC signatory countries, the estimates presented here were calculated using methodologies consistent with those recommended in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). For most source categories, the IPCC default methodologies were expanded, resulting in a more comprehensive and detailed estimate of emissions.

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and ozone (O₃). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, solely a product of industrial activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as halons. Other fluorine containing halogenated substances include hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆).

There are also several gases that do not have a direct global warming effect but indirectly affect terrestrial radiation absorption by influencing the formation and destruction of tropospheric and stratospheric ozone. These gases—referred to as ozone precursors—include carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs).² Aerosols—extremely small particles or liquid droplets often produced by emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂)—can also affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere.

Although CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O occur naturally in the atmosphere, their atmospheric concentrations have been affected by human activities. Since pre-industrial time (i.e., since about 1750), concentrations of these greenhouse gases have increased by 28, 145, and 13 percent, respectively (IPCC 1996). This build-up has altered the composition of the earth's atmosphere, and may affect the global climate system.

¹ The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

² Also referred to in the U.S. Clean Air Act as “criteria pollutants.”

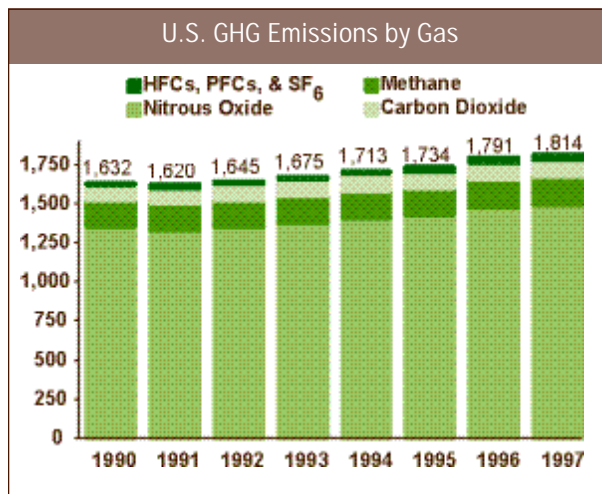
Beginning in the 1950s, the use of CFCs and other stratospheric ozone depleting substances (ODSs) increased by nearly 10 percent per year until the mid-1980s, when international concern about ozone depletion led to the signing of the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. Since then, the consumption of ODSs has been undergoing a phase-out. In contrast, use of ODS substitutes such as HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ has grown significantly during this time.

Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions rose in 1997 to 1,813.6 million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE)³ (11.1 percent above 1990 baseline levels). The single year increase in emissions from 1996 to 1997 was 1.3 percent (23.1 MMTCE), down from the previous year's increase of 3.3 percent. Figure ES-1 through Figure ES-3 illustrate the overall trends in total U.S. emissions by gas, annual changes, and absolute change since 1990. Table ES-1 provides a detailed summary of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for 1990 through 1997.

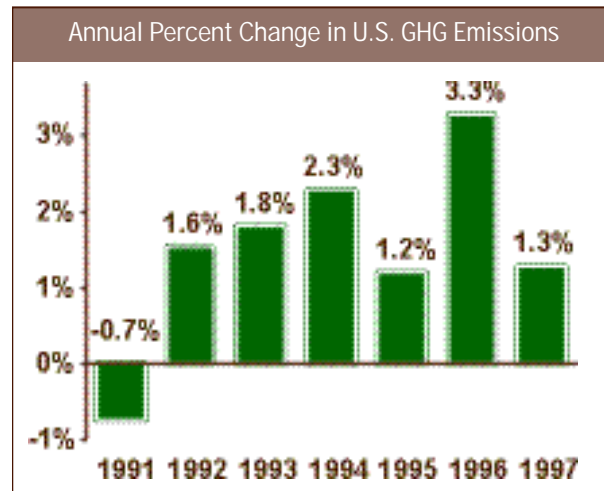
Figure ES-4 illustrates the relative contribution of the direct greenhouse gases to total U.S. emissions in 1997. The primary greenhouse gas emitted by human activities was CO₂. The largest source of CO₂ and of overall greenhouse gas emissions in the United States was

Figure ES-1



³ Estimates are presented in units of millions of metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE), which weights each gas by its GWP value, or Global Warming Potential (see following section).

Figure ES-2



fossil fuel combustion. Methane emissions resulted primarily from decomposition of wastes in landfills, manure and enteric fermentation associated with domestic livestock, natural gas systems, and coal mining. Emissions of N₂O were dominated by agricultural soil management and mobile source fossil fuel combustion. The substitution of ozone depleting substances and emissions of HFC-23 during the production of HCFC-22 were the primary contributors to aggregate HFC emissions. PFC emissions came mainly from primary aluminum production, while electrical transmission and distribution systems emitted the majority of SF₆.

As the largest source of U.S. GHG emissions, CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion accounted for 81 percent of emissions in 1997 when each gas is weighted by its Glo-

Figure ES-3

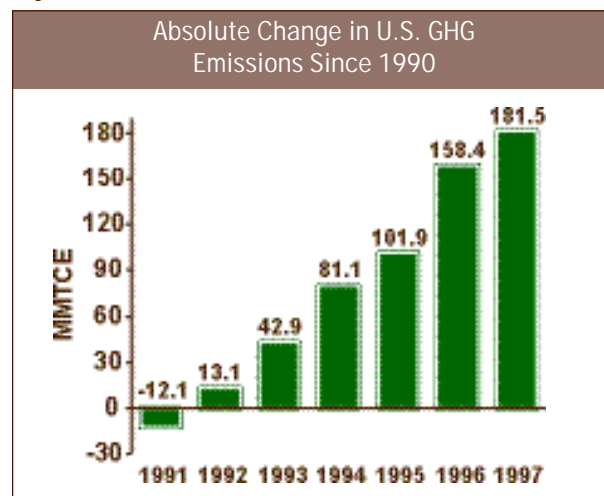


Table ES-1: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (MMTCE)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	1,344.3	1,329.8	1,349.6	1,379.2	1,403.5	1,419.2	1,469.3	1,487.9
Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,327.2	1,312.6	1,332.4	1,360.6	1,383.9	1,397.8	1,447.7	1,466.0
Natural Gas Flaring	2.3	2.6	2.6	3.5	3.6	4.5	4.3	4.2
Cement Manufacture	8.9	8.7	8.8	9.3	9.6	9.9	9.9	10.2
Lime Manufacture	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.9
Limestone and Dolomite Use	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Land-Use Change and Forestry (Sink) ^a	(311.5)	(311.5)	(311.5)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)
International Bunker Fuels ^b	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
CH₄	169.9	171.0	172.5	172.0	175.5	178.6	178.3	179.6
Stationary Sources	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.2
Mobile Sources	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Coal Mining	24.0	22.8	22.0	19.2	19.4	20.3	18.9	18.8
Natural Gas Systems	32.9	33.3	33.9	34.1	33.5	33.2	33.7	33.5
Petroleum Systems	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6
Petrochemical Production	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Silicon Carbide Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Enteric Fermentation	32.7	32.8	33.2	33.6	34.5	34.9	34.5	34.1
Manure Management	14.9	15.4	16.0	16.1	16.7	16.9	16.6	17.0
Rice Cultivation	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.7
Agricultural Residue Burning	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Landfills	56.2	57.6	57.8	59.7	61.6	63.6	65.1	66.7
Wastewater Treatment	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
International Bunker Fuels ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	95.7	97.6	100.1	100.4	108.3	105.4	108.2	109.0
Stationary Sources	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1
Mobile Sources	13.6	14.2	15.2	15.9	16.7	17.0	17.4	17.5
Adipic Acid Production	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.4	3.9
Nitric Acid Production	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.8
Manure Management	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Agricultural Soil Management	65.3	66.2	68.0	67.0	73.4	70.2	72.0	74.1
Agricultural Residue Burning	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Human Sewage	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3
Waste Combustion	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
International Bunker Fuels ^b	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆	22.2	21.6	23.0	23.4	25.9	30.8	34.7	37.1
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.4	4.0	9.5	11.9	14.7
Aluminum Production	4.9	4.7	4.1	3.5	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.9
HCFC-22 Production	9.5	8.4	9.5	8.7	8.6	7.4	8.5	8.2
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0
Total Emissions	1,632.1	1,620.0	1,645.2	1,675.0	1,713.2	1,733.9	1,790.5	1,813.6
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	1,320.6	1,308.5	1,333.7	1,466.5	1,504.7	1,525.4	1,582.0	1,605.0

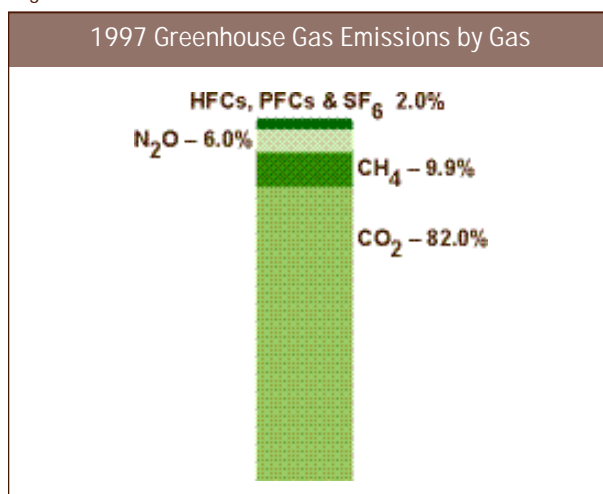
+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

^a Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Estimates of net carbon sequestration due to land-use change and forestry activities exclude non-forest soils, and are based partially upon projections of forest carbon stocks.

^b Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Figure ES-4



bal Warming Potential.⁴ Emissions from this source grew by 11 percent (138.8 MMTCE) from 1990 to 1997 and were responsible for over three-quarters of the increase in national emissions during this period. The annual increase in CO₂ emissions from this source was 1.3 percent in 1997, down from the previous year when emissions increased by 3.6 percent.

The dramatic increase in fossil fuel combustion-related CO₂ emissions in 1996 was primarily a function of two factors: 1) fuel switching by electric utilities from natural gas to more carbon intensive coal as gas prices rose sharply due to weather conditions, which drove up residential consumption of natural gas for heating; and 2) higher petroleum consumption for transportation. In 1997, by comparison, electric utility natural gas consumption rose to regain much of the previous year's decline as the supply available rose due to lower residential consumption. Despite this increase in natural gas consumption by utilities and relatively stagnant U.S. electricity consumption, coal consumption rose in 1997 to offset the temporary shut-down of several nuclear power plants. Petroleum consumption for transportation activities in 1997 also grew by less than one percent, compared to over three percent the previous year (see Table ES-2). The annual increase in CO₂ emissions from petroleum in 1997 is based on motor gasoline sales data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration; it is expected to be revised upward with the publication of future energy statistics.

⁴ See section below entitled Global Warming Potential.

Overall, from 1990 to 1997, total emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O increased by 143.5 (11 percent), 9.7 (6 percent), and 13.4 MMTCE (14 percent), respectively. During the same period, weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 14.9 MMTCE (67 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principle greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because of their extremely high Global Warming Potentials and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by carbon sequestration in forests, which was estimated to be 11 percent of total emissions in 1997.

Other significant trends in emissions from additional source categories over the eight year period from 1990 through 1997 included the following:

- Aggregate HFC and PFC emissions resulting from the substitution of ozone depleting substances (e.g., CFCs) increased dramatically (by 14.4 MMTCE). This increase was partly offset, however, by reductions in PFC emissions from aluminum production (41 percent) and HFC emissions from HCFC-22 production (14 percent), both as a result of voluntary industry emission reduction efforts and, in the former case, from falling domestic aluminum production.
- Combined N₂O and CH₄ emissions from mobile source fossil fuel combustion rose by 3.9 MMTCE (26 percent), primarily due to increased rates of N₂O generation in highway vehicles.

Table ES-2: Annual Percent Change in CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion for Selected Sectors and Fuels

Sector	Fuel Type	1995 to 1996	1996 to 1997
Electric Utility	Coal	5.7%	2.9%
Electric Utility	Natural Gas	-14.6%	8.7%
Residential	Natural Gas	8.1%	-4.4%
Transportation*	Petroleum	3.4%	0.3%

* Excludes emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

- Methane emissions from the decomposition of waste in municipal and industrial landfills rose by 10.5 MMTCE (19 percent) as the amount of organic matter in landfills steadily accumulated.
- Emissions from coal mining dropped by 5.2 MMTCE (21 percent) as the use of methane from degasification systems increased significantly.
- Nitrous oxide emissions from agricultural soil management increased by 8.8 MMTCE (13 percent) as fertilizer consumption and cultivation of nitrogen fixing crops rose.
- An additional domestic adipic acid plant installed emission control systems in 1997; this was estimated to have resulted in a 1.4 MMTCE (27 percent) decline in emissions from 1996 to 1997 despite an increase in production.

The following sections describe the concept of Global Warming Potentials (GWPs), present the anthropogenic sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions in the United States, briefly discuss emission pathways, summarize the emission estimates, and explain the relative importance of emissions from each source category.

Box ES-1: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

There are several ways to assess a nation's greenhouse gas emitting intensity. These measures of intensity could be based on aggregate energy consumption because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions, on fossil fuel consumption only because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels, on electricity consumption because electric utilities were the largest sources of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 1997, on total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity, or on a per capita basis. Depending upon which of these measures was used, the United States could appear to have reduced or increased its national greenhouse gas intensity. Table ES-3 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the U.S. have grown at an average annual rate of 1.5 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy or fossil fuel consumption—thereby indicating an improved or lower greenhouse gas emitting intensity—and much slower than that for either electricity consumption or overall gross domestic product. Emissions, however, are growing faster than national population, thereby indicating a worsening or higher greenhouse gas emitting intensity on a per capita basis (see Figure ES-5). Overall, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations—a function of many complex anthropogenic and natural processes—are increasing at 0.4 percent per year.

Table ES-3: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	Growth Rate ^g
GHG Emissions ^a	100	99	101	103	105	106	110	111	1.5%
Energy Consumption ^b	100	100	101	104	106	108	112	112	1.6%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^c	100	99	101	104	106	107	110	112	1.6%
Electricity Consumption ^c	100	102	102	105	108	111	114	115	2.0%
GDP ^d	100	99	102	104	108	110	114	118	2.5%
Population ^e	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	1.0%
Atmospheric CO ₂ Concentration ^f	100	100	101	101	101	102	102	103	0.4%

^a GWP weighted values

^b Energy content weighted values. Source: DOE/EIA

^c Source: DOE/EIA

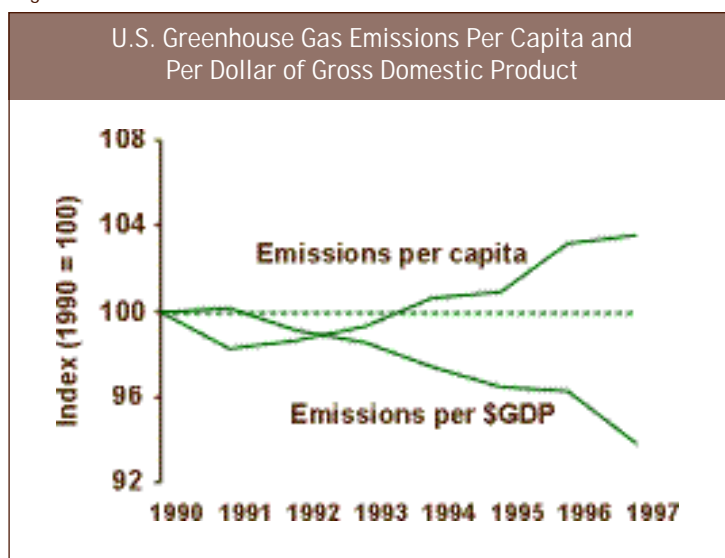
^d Gross Domestic Product in chained 1992 dollars (BEA 1998)

^e (U.S. Census Bureau 1998)

^f Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii (Keeling and Whorf 1998)

^g Average annual growth rate

Figure ES-5



Box ES-2: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Transportation Activities

Motor vehicle usage is increasing all over the world, including in the United States. Since the 1970s, the number of highway vehicles registered in the United States has increased faster than the overall population, according to the Federal Highway Administration. Likewise, the number of miles driven—up 18 percent from 1990 to 1997—and gallons of gasoline consumed each year in the United States have increased relatively steadily since the 1980s, according to the Energy Information Administration. These increases in motor vehicle usage are the result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, increasing urban sprawl, and low fuel prices.

One of the unintended consequences of these changes is a slowing of progress toward cleaner air in both urban and rural parts of the country. Passenger cars, trucks, motorcycles, and buses emit significant quantities of air pollutants with local, regional, and global effects. Motor vehicles are major sources of carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs). Motor vehicles are also important contributors to many serious air pollution problems, including ground-level ozone or smog, acid rain, fine particulate matter, and global warming. Within the United States and abroad, government agencies have taken strong actions to reduce these emissions. Since the 1970s, the EPA has reduced lead in gasoline, developed strict emission standards for new passenger cars and trucks, directed states to enact comprehensive motor vehicle emission control programs, required inspection and maintenance programs, and more recently, introduced the use of reformulated gasoline to mitigate the air pollution impacts from motor vehicles. New vehicles are now equipped with advanced emissions controls, which are designed to reduce emissions of nitrogen oxides, hydrocarbons, and carbon monoxide.

This report reflects new data on the role that automotive catalytic converters play in emissions of N₂O, a powerful greenhouse gas. The EPA's Office of Mobile Sources has conducted a series of tests in order to measure the magnitude of N₂O emissions from gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks equipped with catalytic converters. Results show that N₂O emissions are lower than the IPCC default factors, and the United States has shared this data with the IPCC. In this report, new emission factors developed from these measurements and from previously published literature were used to calculate emissions from mobile sources in the United States (see Annex C).

Table ES-4 summarizes greenhouse gas emissions from all transportation-related activities. Overall, transportation activities—excluding international bunker fuels—accounted for an almost constant 26 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions from 1990 to 1997. These emissions were primarily CO₂ from fuel combustion, which increased by 10 percent from 1990 to 1997. However, because of larger increases in N₂O and HFC emissions during this period, overall emissions from transportation activities actually increased by 12 percent.

Table ES-4: Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (MMTCE)

Gas/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	405.0	396.7	402.4	406.8	422.1	430.7	445.3	446.5
Passenger Cars ^a	169.3	167.8	172.0	173.5	172.5	175.6	160.8	162.6
Light-Duty Trucks ^a	77.5	77.2	77.2	80.5	87.2	89.2	109.9	111.1
Other Trucks	57.3	55.1	56.7	59.9	62.7	64.2	68.3	69.5
Buses	2.7	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.0	3.0
Aircraft	50.5	48.4	47.4	47.6	49.6	48.3	50.5	50.1
Boats and Vessels	16.4	15.9	16.4	11.7	13.9	16.8	18.5	15.4
Locomotives	7.5	6.9	7.4	6.8	8.0	8.1	8.8	9.0
Other ^b	23.8	22.5	22.4	23.8	24.9	24.9	25.5	25.8
International Bunker Fuels ^c	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
CH₄	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Passenger Cars	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Light-Duty Trucks	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Other Trucks and Buses	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Aircraft	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Boats and Vessels	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Locomotives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other ^d	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
International Bunker Fuels ^c	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	13.6	14.2	15.2	15.9	16.7	17.0	17.4	17.5
Passenger Cars	8.7	9.1	9.7	10.1	10.0	10.1	8.9	9.1
Light-Duty Trucks	3.4	3.7	3.9	4.2	5.1	5.2	6.8	6.8
Other Trucks and Buses	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9
Aircraft ^d	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Boats and Vessels	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Locomotives	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other ^d	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
International Bunker Fuels ^c	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
HFCs	+	+	0.2	0.7	1.3	2.5	3.6	4.5
Mobile Air Conditioners ^e	+	+	0.2	0.7	1.3	2.5	3.6	4.5
Total^c	420.0	412.3	419.1	424.8	441.5	451.6	467.7	469.9

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a In 1996, the U.S. Federal Highway Administration modified the definition of light-duty trucks to include minivans and sport utility vehicles. Previously, these vehicles were included under the passenger cars category. Hence the sharp drop in CO₂ emissions for passenger cars from 1995 to 1996 was observed. This gap, however, was offset by an equivalent rise in CO₂ emissions from light-duty trucks.

^b "Other" CO₂ emissions include motorcycles, construction equipment, agricultural machinery, pipelines, and lubricants.

^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d "Other" CH₄ and N₂O emissions include motorcycles, construction equipment, agricultural machinery, gasoline-powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light commercial, logging, airport service, other equipment; and diesel-powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light construction, airport service.

^e Includes primarily HFC-134a

Box ES-3: Electric Utility-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Like transportation, activities related to the generation, transmission, and distribution of electricity in the United States result in greenhouse gas emissions. Table ES-5 presents greenhouse gas emissions from electric utility-related activities. Aggregate emissions from electric utilities of all greenhouse gases increased by 11.8 percent from 1990 to 1997, and accounted for just under 30 percent of total U.S. greenhouse emissions during the same period. The majority of these emissions resulted from the combustion of coal in boilers to produce steam that is passed through a turbine to generate electricity. Overall, the generation of electricity results in a larger portion of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions than any other activity.

Table ES-5: Electric Utility-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (MMTCE)

Gas/Fuel Type or Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	476.8	473.4	472.5	490.7	494.8	494.1	513.2	532.3
Coal	409.0	407.2	411.8	428.7	430.2	433.0	457.5	470.9
Natural Gas	41.2	41.1	40.7	39.5	44.0	47.2	40.3	43.8
Petroleum	26.6	25.1	19.9	22.5	20.6	14.0	15.4	17.6
Geothermal	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+
CH₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Stationary Sources (Utilities)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3
Stationary Sources (Utilities)	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3
SF₆	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Total	484.6	481.4	480.8	499.3	503.7	503.3	522.5	541.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Global Warming Potentials

Gases in the atmosphere can contribute to the greenhouse effect both directly and indirectly. Direct effects occur when the gas itself is a greenhouse gas; indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations of the original gas produce a gas or gases that are greenhouse gases, or when a gas influences the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases. The concept of a Global Warming Potential (GWP) has been developed to compare the ability of each greenhouse gas to trap heat in the atmosphere relative to another gas. Carbon dioxide was chosen as the reference gas to be consistent with IPCC guidelines.

Global Warming Potentials are not provided for the criteria pollutants CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂ because there is no agreed upon method to estimate the contribution of gases that indirectly affect radiative forcing to climate change (IPCC 1996).

All gases in this executive summary are presented in units of million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE). Carbon comprises 12/44^{ths} of carbon dioxide by weight. In order to convert emissions reported in teragrams (Tg) of greenhouse gas to MMTCE, the following equation was used:

The GWP of a greenhouse gas is the ratio of global warming, or radiative forcing (both direct and indirect), from one unit mass of a greenhouse gas to that of one unit mass of carbon dioxide over a period of time. While any time period can be selected, the 100 year GWPs recommended by the IPCC and employed by the United States for policy making and reporting purposes were used in this report (IPCC 1996). A tabulation of GWPs is given below in Table ES-6.

Table ES-6: Global Warming Potentials (100 Year Time Horizon)

Gas	GWP
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	1
Methane (CH ₄)*	21
Nitrous oxide (N ₂ O)	310
HFC-23	11,700
HFC-125	2,800
HFC-134a	1,300
HFC-143a	3,800
HFC-152a	140
HFC-227ea	2,900
HFC-236fa	6,300
HFC-4310mee	1,300
CF ₄	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	7,400
SF ₆	23,900

Source: (IPCC 1996)

* The methane GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

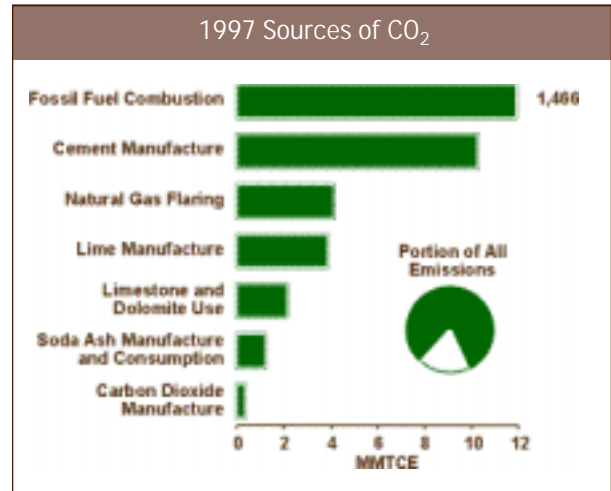
Carbon Dioxide Emissions

The global carbon cycle is made up of large carbon flows and reservoirs. Hundreds of billions of tons of carbon in the form of CO₂ are absorbed by oceans and living biomass (sinks) and are emitted to the atmosphere annually through natural processes (sources). When in equilibrium, carbon fluxes among these various reservoirs are roughly balanced.

Since the Industrial Revolution, this equilibrium of atmospheric carbon has been altered. Atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ have risen about 28 percent (IPCC 1996), principally because of fossil fuel combustion, which accounted for almost 99 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions in 1997. Changes in land-use and forestry practices can also emit CO₂ (e.g., through conversion of forest land to agricultural or urban use) or can act as a sink for CO₂ (e.g., through net additions to forest biomass).

Figure ES-6 and Table ES-7 summarize U.S. sources and sinks of CO₂, while the remainder of this section discusses CO₂ emission trends in greater detail.

Figure ES-6



Energy

Energy-related activities accounted for almost all U.S. CO₂ emissions for the period of 1990 through 1997. Carbon dioxide from fossil fuel combustion was the main contributor, although CH₄ and N₂O were also emitted. In 1997, approximately 85 percent of the energy consumed in the United States was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 15 percent came from renewable or other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, and nuclear energy (see Figure ES-7 and Figure ES-8). Energy-related activities other than fuel combustion, such as those associated with the production, transmission, storage, and distribution of fossil fuels, also emit GHGs (primarily CH₄). A discussion of specific trends related to CO₂ emissions from energy consumption is presented below.

Fossil Fuel Combustion

As fossil fuels are combusted, the carbon stored in them is almost entirely emitted as CO₂. The amount of carbon in fuels per unit of energy content varies significantly by fuel type. For example, coal contains the highest amount of carbon per unit of energy, while petroleum has about 25 percent less carbon than coal, and natural gas has about 45 percent less. From 1990 through 1997, petroleum supplied the largest share of U.S. energy demands, accounting for an average of 39 percent

Table ES-7: U.S. Sources of CO₂ Emissions and Sinks (MMTCE)

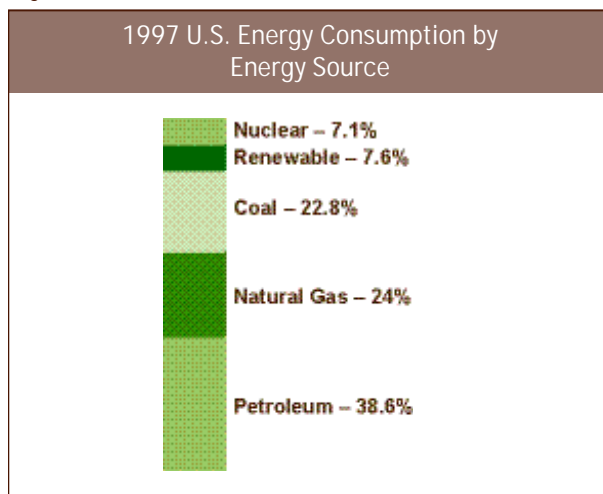
Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,327.2	1,312.6	1,332.4	1,360.6	1,383.9	1,397.8	1,447.7	1,466.0
Cement Manufacture	8.9	8.7	8.8	9.3	9.6	9.9	9.9	10.2
Natural Gas Flaring	2.3	2.6	2.6	3.5	3.6	4.5	4.3	4.2
Lime Manufacture	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.9
Limestone and Dolomite Use	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Land-Use Change and Forestry (Sink) ^a	(311.5)	(311.5)	(311.5)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)
International Bunker Fuels ^b	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
Total Emissions	1,344.3	1,329.8	1,349.6	1,379.2	1,403.5	1,419.2	1,469.3	1,487.9
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	1,032.8	1,018.3	1,038.1	1,170.6	1,194.9	1,210.6	1,260.7	1,279.3

^a Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Estimates of net carbon sequestration due to land-use change and forestry activities exclude non-forest soils, and are based partially upon projections of forest carbon stocks.

^b Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

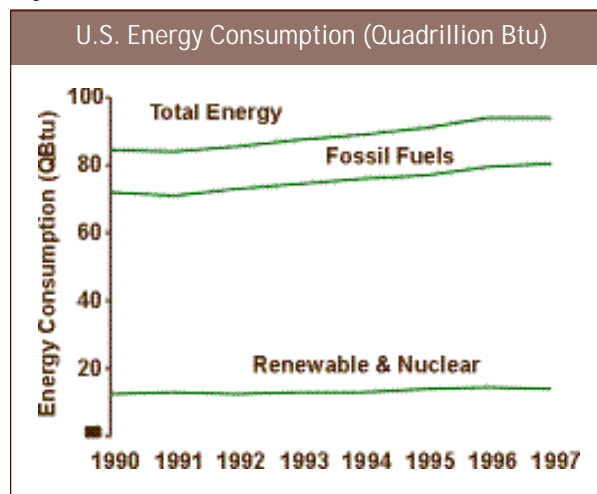
Figure ES-7



of total energy consumption. Natural gas and coal followed in order of importance, accounting for an average of 24 and 22 percent of total energy consumption, respectively. Most petroleum was consumed in the transportation sector, while the vast majority of coal was used by electric utilities, and natural gas was consumed largely in the industrial and residential sectors.

Emissions of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion increased at an average annual rate of 1.5 percent from 1990 to 1997. The fundamental factors behind this trend include (1) a robust domestic economy, (2) relatively low energy prices, and (3) fuel switching by electric utilities. After 1990, when CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were 1,327.2 MMTCE, there was a slight de-

Figure ES-8



cline in emissions in 1991, followed by a relatively steady increase to 1,466.0 MMTCE in 1997. Overall, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased by 11 percent over the eight year period and rose by 1.3 percent in the final year.

Of all emissions related to fossil fuel combustion from 1996 to 1997, emissions from coal grew the most (an increase of 12.1 MMTCE or 2.3 percent). Alone, emissions from coal combustion by electric utilities increased by 2.9 percent from 1996 to 1997. Emissions from natural gas remained almost unchanged as increased consumption by electric utilities and the commercial sector were offset by decreases in the residential and industrial sectors.

Table ES-8: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by End-Use Sector (MMTCE)*

End-Use Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residential	253.0	257.1	255.7	271.6	268.6	269.8	285.4	286.1
Commercial	206.8	206.4	205.3	212.1	214.1	218.4	225.9	237.1
Industrial	453.3	441.8	459.3	459.5	467.8	466.8	478.8	483.7
Transportation	405.0	396.7	402.4	406.8	422.1	430.7	445.3	446.5
U.S. Territories	9.1	10.6	9.7	10.5	11.3	12.0	12.2	12.6
Total	1,327.2	1,312.6	1,332.4	1,360.6	1,383.9	1,397.8	1,447.7	1,466.0

* Emissions from fossil fuel combustion by electric utilities are allocated based on electricity consumption by each end-use sector.
 Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Emissions from the combustion of petroleum products in 1997 increased 1.5 percent from the previous year, accounting for about 33 percent of the increase in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

The four end-use sectors contributing to CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion include: industrial, transportation, residential, and commercial. Electric utilities also emit CO₂, although these emissions are produced as they consume fossil fuel to provide electricity to one of the four end-use sectors. For the discussion below, utility emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector based upon their aggregate electricity consumption. Emissions from utilities are addressed separately after the end-use sectors have been discussed. Emissions from U.S. territories are also calculated separately due to a lack of end-use-specific consumption data. Table ES-8, Figure ES-9, and Figure ES-10 summarize CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector.

Industrial End-Use Sector. Industrial CO₂ emissions resulting from direct fossil fuel combustion and from the generation of electricity consumed by the sector accounted for 33 percent of U.S. emissions from fossil fuel consumption. About two-thirds of these emissions result from producing steam and process heat from fossil fuel combustion, while the remaining third results from consuming electricity for powering motors, electric furnaces, ovens, and lighting.

Transportation End-Use Sector. Transportation activities—excluding international bunker fuels—accounted for 30 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 1997. Virtually all of the energy consumed in this end-use sector came from petroleum products. Two thirds of the emissions resulted from gasoline consumption in motor vehicles. The remaining emissions came from other transportation activities, including the combustion of diesel fuel in heavy-duty vehicles and jet fuel in aircraft.

Figure ES-9

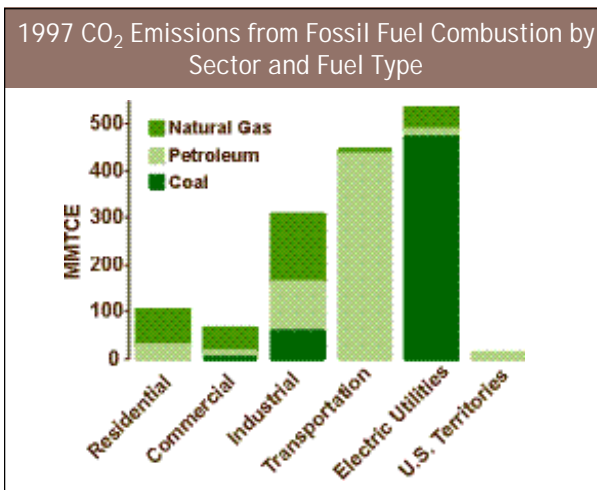
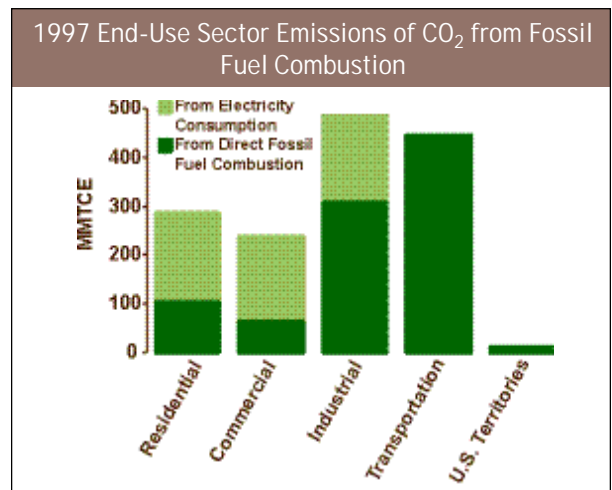


Figure ES-10



Residential and Commercial End-Use Sectors. The residential and commercial sectors accounted for 19 and 16 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel consumption in 1997. Both sectors relied heavily on electricity for meeting energy needs, with 64 and 73 percent, respectively, of their emissions attributable to electricity consumption for lighting, heating, cooling, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the consumption of natural gas and petroleum, primarily for meeting heating and cooking needs.

Electric Utilities. The United States relies on electricity to meet a significant portion of its energy demands, especially for lighting, electric motors, heating, and air conditioning. Electric utilities are responsible for consuming 28 percent of overall U.S. energy and emitted 36 percent of CO₂ from fossil fuel consumption in 1997. The type of fuel combusted by utilities has a significant effect on their emissions. For example, some electricity is generated with low CO₂ emitting energy technologies, particularly non-fossil options such as nuclear, hydroelectric, or geothermal energy. However, electric utilities rely on coal for over half of their total energy requirements and accounted for 88 percent of all coal consumed in the United States in 1997. Consequently, changes in electricity demand have a significant impact on coal consumption and associated CO₂ emissions.

Natural Gas Flaring

Carbon dioxide is produced when methane from oil wells is flared (i.e., combusted) to relieve rising pressure or to dispose of small quantities of gas that are not commercially marketable. In 1997, flaring activities emitted approximately 4.2 MMTCE, or about 0.3 percent of U.S. CO₂ emissions.

Biomass Combustion

Biomass—in the form of fuel wood and wood waste—is used primarily by the industrial end-use sector, while the transportation end-use sector is the predominant use of biomass-based fuels, such as ethanol from corn and woody crops. Ethanol and ethanol blends, such as gasohol, are typically used to fuel public transport vehicles.

Although these fuels do emit CO₂, in the long run the CO₂ emitted from biofuel consumption does not increase atmospheric CO₂ concentrations if the biogenic carbon emitted is offset by the growth of new biomass. For example, fuel wood burned one year but re-grown the next only recycles carbon, rather than creating a net increase in total atmospheric carbon. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs in wooded or crop lands are accounted for under Land-Use Change and Forestry.

Gross CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion were 59.1 MMTCE, with the industrial sector accounting for 79 percent of the emissions, and the residential sector, 18 percent. Ethanol consumption by the transportation sector accounted for only 3 percent of CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion.

Industrial Processes

Emissions are often produced as a by-product of various non-energy-related activities. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials. This transformation often releases greenhouse gases such as CO₂. The production processes that emit CO₂ include cement manufacture, lime manufacture, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., in iron and steel making), soda ash manufacture and consumption, and CO₂ consumption. Total CO₂ emissions from these sources were approximately 17.8 MMTCE in 1997, accounting for about 1 percent of total CO₂ emissions. Since 1990, emissions from each of these sources increased, except for emissions from soda ash manufacture and consumption, which remained relatively constant.

Cement Manufacture (10.2 MMTCE)

Carbon dioxide is produced primarily during the production of clinker, an intermediate product from which finished Portland and masonry cement are made. Specifically, CO₂ is created when calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is heated in a cement kiln to form lime and CO₂. This lime combines with other materials to produce clinker, while the CO₂ is released into the atmosphere.

Lime Manufacture (3.9 MMTCE)

Lime is used in steel making, construction, pulp and paper manufacturing, and water and sewage treatment. It is manufactured by heating limestone (mostly calcium carbonate, CaCO_3) in a kiln, creating calcium oxide (quicklime) and CO_2 , which is normally emitted to the atmosphere.

Limestone and Dolomite Use (2.1 MMTCE)

Limestone (CaCO_3) and dolomite ($\text{CaCO}_3\text{MgCO}_3$) are basic raw materials used by a wide variety of industries, including the construction, agriculture, chemical, and metallurgical industries. For example, limestone can be used as a purifier in refining metals. In the case of iron ore, limestone heated in a blast furnace reacts with impurities in the iron ore and fuels, generating CO_2 as a by-product. Limestone is also used in flue gas desulfurization systems to remove sulfur dioxide from the exhaust gases.

Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption (1.2 MMTCE)

Commercial soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na_2CO_3) is used in many consumer products, such as glass, soap and detergents, paper, textiles, and food. During the manufacturing of soda ash, some natural sources of sodium carbonate are heated and transformed into a crude soda ash, in which CO_2 is generated as a by-product. In addition, CO_2 is often released when the soda ash is consumed.

Carbon Dioxide Consumption (0.3 MMTCE)

Carbon dioxide is used directly in many segments of the economy, including food processing, beverage manufacturing, chemical processing, and a host of industrial and other miscellaneous applications. For the most part, the CO_2 used in these applications is eventually released to the atmosphere.

Land-Use Change and Forestry

When humans alter the biosphere through changes in land-use and forest management practices, they alter the natural carbon flux between biomass, soils, and the atmosphere. In the United States, improved forest management practices and the regeneration of previously cleared forest areas have resulted in a net uptake (sequestration) of carbon in U.S. forest lands, which cover about 298 million

hectares (737 million acres) (Powell et al. 1993). This uptake is an ongoing result of land-use changes in previous decades. For example, because of improved agricultural productivity and the widespread use of tractors, the rate of clearing forest land for crop cultivation and pasture slowed greatly in the late 19th century, and by 1920 this practice had all but ceased. As farming expanded in the Midwest and West, large areas of previously cultivated land in the East were brought out of crop production, primarily between 1920 and 1950, and were allowed to revert to forest land or were actively reforested.

Since the early 1950s, the managed growth of private forest land in the East has nearly doubled the biomass density there. The 1970s and 1980s saw a resurgence of federally sponsored tree-planting programs (e.g., the Forestry Incentive Program) and soil conservation programs (e.g., the Conservation Reserve Program), which have focused on reforesting previously harvested lands, improving timber-management, combating soil erosion, and converting marginal cropland to forests.

In 1997, the CO_2 flux from land-use change and forestry activities was estimated to have been a net uptake of 208.6 MMTCE. This carbon was sequestered in trees, understory, litter, and soils in forests, U.S. wood product pools, and wood in landfills. This net carbon uptake represents an offset of about 14 percent of the CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 1997. The amount of carbon sequestered through U.S. forestry and land-use practices is estimated to have declined by about a third between 1990 and 1997 largely due to the maturation of existing U.S. forests and the slowed expansion of Eastern forest cover.

Methane Emissions

Atmospheric methane (CH_4) is an integral component of the greenhouse effect, second only to CO_2 as a contributor to anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. Methane's overall contribution to global warming is significant because it is estimated to be 21 times more effective at trapping heat in the atmosphere than CO_2 (i.e., the GWP value of methane is 21). Over the last two centuries, methane's concentration in the atmosphere has more than doubled (IPCC 1996). Scientists believe these

atmospheric increases were due largely to increasing emissions from anthropogenic sources, such as landfills, natural gas and petroleum systems, agricultural activities, coal mining, stationary and mobile source fossil fuel combustion, wastewater treatment, and certain industrial processes (see Figure ES-11 and Table ES-9).

Landfills

Landfills are the largest single anthropogenic source of methane emissions in the United States. In an environment where the oxygen content is low or nonexistent, organic materials, such as yard waste, household waste, food waste, and paper, are decomposed by bacteria, resulting in the generation of methane and biogenic CO₂. Methane emissions from landfills are affected by site-specific factors such as waste composition, moisture, and landfill size.

Methane emissions from U.S. landfills in 1997 were 66.7 MMTCE, a 19 percent increase since 1990 due to the steady accumulation of wastes in landfills. Emissions from U.S. municipal solid waste landfills, which received about 61 percent of the solid waste generated in the United States, accounted for 93 percent of total landfill emissions, while industrial landfills accounted for the remainder. Approximately 14 percent of the methane generated in U.S. landfills in 1997 was recovered and combusted, often for energy.

A regulation promulgated in March 1996 requires the largest U.S. landfills to begin collecting and combusting their landfill gas to reduce emissions of nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). It

Figure ES-11

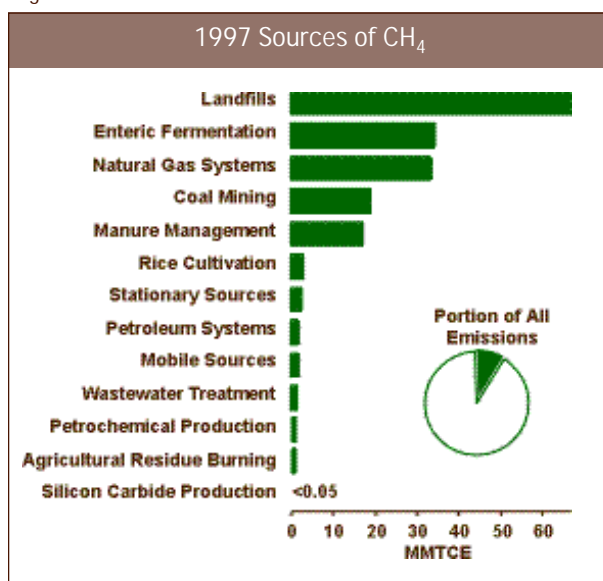


Table ES-9: U.S. Sources of Methane Emissions (MMTCE)

Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Landfills	56.2	57.6	57.8	59.7	61.6	63.6	65.1	66.7
Enteric Fermentation	32.7	32.8	33.2	33.6	34.5	34.9	34.5	34.1
Natural Gas Systems	32.9	33.3	33.9	34.1	33.5	33.2	33.7	33.5
Coal Mining	24.0	22.8	22.0	19.2	19.4	20.3	18.9	18.8
Manure Management	14.9	15.4	16.0	16.1	16.7	16.9	16.6	17.0
Rice Cultivation	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.7
Stationary Sources	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.2
Petroleum Systems	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6
Mobile Sources	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Wastewater Treatment	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Petrochemical Production	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Agricultural Residue Burning	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Silicon Carbide Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
International Bunker Fuels*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	169.9	171.0	172.5	172.0	175.5	178.6	178.3	179.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

* Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

is estimated that by the year 2000, this regulation will have reduced landfill methane emissions by more than 50 percent. Furthermore, the EPA is currently reviewing site-specific information on landfill gas recovery and anticipates that this new information will lead to a higher estimate of the national recovery total, and thus, lower net methane emissions. This new information will be available in future inventories.

Natural Gas and Petroleum Systems

Methane is the major component of natural gas. During the production, processing, transmission, and distribution of natural gas, fugitive emissions of methane often occur. Because natural gas is often found in conjunction with petroleum deposits, leakage from petroleum systems is also a source of emissions. Emissions vary greatly from facility to facility and are largely a function of operation and maintenance procedures and equipment conditions. In 1997, emissions from U.S. natural gas systems were estimated to be 33.5 MMTCE, accounting for approximately 19 percent of U.S. methane emissions.

Methane emissions from the components of petroleum systems—including crude oil production, crude oil refining, transportation, and distribution—generally occur as a result of system leaks, disruptions, and routine maintenance. In 1997, emissions from petroleum systems were estimated to be 1.6 MMTCE, or 1 percent of U.S. methane emissions. EPA is reviewing new information on methane emissions from petroleum systems and anticipates that future emission estimates will be higher for this source.

From 1990 to 1997, combined methane emissions from natural gas and petroleum systems increased by about 2 percent as the number of gas producing wells and miles of distribution pipeline rose.

Coal Mining

Produced millions of years ago during the formation of coal, methane trapped within coal seams and surrounding rock strata is released when the coal is mined. The quantity of methane released to the atmosphere during coal mining operations depends primarily upon the depth and type of the coal that is mined.

Methane from surface mines is emitted directly to the atmosphere as the rock strata overlying the coal seam are removed. Because methane in underground mines is explosive at concentrations of 5 to 15 percent in air, most active underground mines are required to vent this methane, typically to the atmosphere. At some mines, methane-recovery systems may supplement these ventilation systems. U.S. recovery of methane has been increasing in recent years. During 1997, coal mining activities emitted 18.8 MMTCE of methane, or 10 percent of U.S. methane emissions. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source decreased by 22 percent due to increased use of the methane collected by mine degasification systems.

Agriculture

Agriculture accounted for 30 percent of U.S. methane emissions in 1997, with enteric fermentation in domestic livestock and manure management accounting for the majority. Other agricultural activities contributing directly to methane emissions included rice cultivation and agricultural waste burning.

Enteric Fermentation (34.1 MMTCE)

During animal digestion, methane is produced through the process of enteric fermentation, in which microbes residing in animal digestive systems break down the feed consumed by the animal. Ruminants, which include cattle, buffalo, sheep, and goats, have the highest methane emissions among all animal types because they have a rumen, or large fore-stomach, in which methane-producing fermentation occurs. Non-ruminant domestic animals, such as pigs and horses, have much lower methane emissions. In 1997, enteric fermentation was the source of about 19 percent of U.S. methane emissions, and more than half of the methane emissions from agriculture. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source increased by 5 percent due mainly to increased livestock populations.

Manure Management (17.0 MMTCE)

The decomposition of organic animal waste in an anaerobic environment produces methane. The most important factor affecting the amount of methane produced is how the manure is managed, because certain types of storage and treatment systems promote an oxy-

gen-free environment. In particular, liquid systems tend to encourage anaerobic conditions and produce significant quantities of methane, whereas solid waste management approaches produce little or no methane. Higher temperatures and moist climatic conditions also promote methane production.

Emissions from manure management were about 9 percent of U.S. methane emissions in 1997, and about a third of the methane emissions from agriculture. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source increased by 14 percent because of larger farm animal populations and expanded use of liquid manure management systems.

Rice Cultivation (2.7 MMTCE)

Most of the world's rice, and all of the rice in the United States, is grown on flooded fields. When fields are flooded, anaerobic conditions develop and the organic matter in the soil decomposes, releasing methane to the atmosphere, primarily through the rice plants. In 1997, rice cultivation was the source of slightly over 1 percent of total U.S. methane emissions, and about 5 percent of U.S. methane emissions from agriculture. Emissions estimates from this source did not change significantly from 1990 levels.

Agricultural Residue Burning (0.2 MMTCE)

Burning crop residue releases a number of greenhouse gases, including methane. Agricultural residue burning is considered to be a net source of methane emissions because, unlike CO₂, methane released during burning is not reabsorbed by crop regrowth during the next growing season. Because field burning is not common in the United States, it was responsible for only 0.1 percent of U.S. methane emissions in 1997.

Other Sources

Methane is also produced from several other sources in the United States, including fossil fuel combustion, wastewater treatment, and some industrial processes. Fossil fuel combustion by stationary and mobile sources was responsible for methane emissions of 2.2 and 1.4 MMTCE, respectively in 1997. The majority of emissions from stationary sources resulted from the combustion of wood in the residential and industrial sectors. The combustion of gasoline in highway vehicles was re-

sponsible for the majority of the methane emitted from mobile sources. Wastewater treatment was a smaller source of methane, emitting 0.9 MMTCE in 1996. Methane emissions from two industrial sources—petrochemical and silicon carbide production—were also estimated, totaling 0.4 MMTCE.

Nitrous Oxide Emissions

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a greenhouse gas that is produced both naturally, from a wide variety of biological sources in soil and water, and anthropogenically by a variety of agricultural, energy-related, industrial, and waste management activities. While N₂O emissions are much lower than CO₂ emissions, N₂O is approximately 310 times more powerful than CO₂ at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). During the past two centuries, atmospheric concentrations of N₂O have risen by approximately 13 percent. The main anthropogenic activities producing N₂O in the United States were fossil fuel combustion in motor vehicles, agricultural soil management, and adipic and nitric acid production (see Figure ES-12 and Table ES-10).

Agricultural Soil Management

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is produced naturally in soils through microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification. A number of anthropogenic activities add to the amount of nitrogen available to be emitted as N₂O by these microbial processes. Direct additions of nitrogen occur through the application of synthetic and organic

Figure ES-12

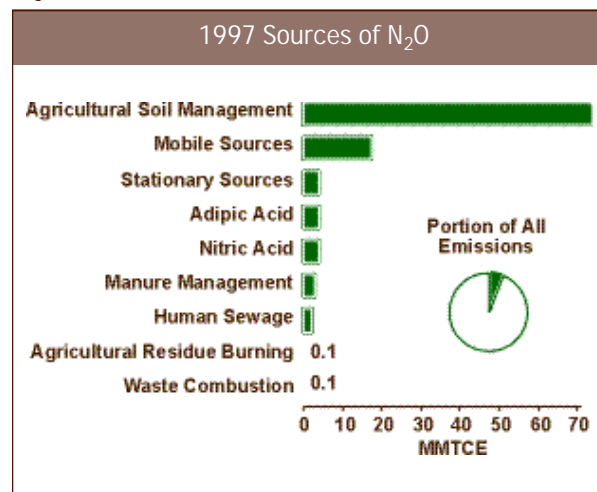


Table ES-10: U.S. Sources of Nitrous Oxide Emissions (MMTCE)

Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Agricultural Soil Management	65.3	66.2	68.0	67.0	73.4	70.2	72.0	74.1
Mobile Sources	13.6	14.2	15.2	15.9	16.7	17.0	17.4	17.5
Stationary Sources	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1
Adipic Acid Production	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.4	3.9
Nitric Acid Production	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.8
Manure Management	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Human Sewage	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3
Agricultural Residue Burning	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Waste Combustion	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
International Bunker Fuels*	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	95.7	97.6	100.1	100.4	108.3	105.4	108.2	109.0

* Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

fertilizers, cultivation of nitrogen-fixing crops, cultivation of high-organic-content soils, the application of livestock manure on croplands and pasture, the incorporation of crop residues in soils, and direct excretion by animals onto soil. Indirect emissions result from volatilization and subsequent atmospheric deposition of ammonia (NH₃) and oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and from leaching and surface run-off. These indirect emissions originate from nitrogen applied to soils as fertilizer and from managed and unmanaged livestock wastes.

In 1997, agricultural soil management accounted for 74.1 MMTCE, or 68 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source increased by 13 percent as fertilizer consumption and cultivation of nitrogen fixing crops rose.

Fossil Fuel Combustion

Nitrous oxide is a product of the reaction that occurs between nitrogen and oxygen during fossil fuel combustion. Both mobile and stationary sources emit N₂O, and the volume emitted varies according to the type of fuel, technology, and pollution control device used, as well as maintenance and operating practices. For example, catalytic converters installed to reduce mobile source pollution can result in the formation of N₂O.

In 1997, N₂O emissions from mobile sources totaled 17.5 MMTCE, or 16 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. Emissions of N₂O from stationary sources were 4.1 MMTCE, or 4 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. From 1990 to 1997, combined N₂O emissions from stationary and mobile sources

increased by 22 percent, primarily due to increased rates of N₂O generation in motor vehicles.

Adipic Acid Production

The majority of the adipic acid produced in the United States is used to manufacture nylon 6,6. Adipic acid is also used to produce some low-temperature lubricants, and to add a “tangy” flavor to foods.

In 1997, U.S. adipic acid production emitted 3.9 MMTCE of N₂O, or 4 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. By the end of 1997, all but one of the four adipic acid plant in the United States were believed to have installed emission control systems that almost eliminate N₂O emissions. Even though adipic acid production increased from 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source decreased by 17 percent, due to the installation of control systems on additional production plants.

Nitric Acid Production

Nitric acid production is another industrial source of N₂O emissions. Used primarily to make synthetic commercial fertilizer, this raw material is also a major component in the production of adipic acid and explosives.

Virtually all of the nitric acid manufactured in the United States is produced by the oxidation of ammonia, during which N₂O is formed and emitted to the atmosphere. In 1997, N₂O emissions from nitric acid production were 3.8 MMTCE, or 4 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source increased by 14 percent as nitric acid production grew.

Manure Management

Nitrous oxide is produced as part of microbial nitrification and denitrification processes in managed and unmanaged manure, the latter of which is addressed under agricultural soil management. Total N₂O emissions from managed manure systems in 1997 were 3.0 MMTCE, accounting for 3 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. Emissions increased by 15 percent from 1990 to 1997.

Other Sources

Other sources of N₂O included agricultural residue burning, waste combustion, and human sewage in wastewater treatment systems. In 1997, agricultural residue burning and municipal solid waste combustion each emitted approximately 0.1 MMTCE of N₂O. Although N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment were not fully estimated because of insufficient data availability, the human sewage component of domestic wastewater resulted in emissions of 2.3 MMTCE in 1997.

HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ Emissions

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are categories of synthetic chemicals that have been introduced as alternatives to the ozone depleting substances (ODSs), which are being phased out under the *Montreal Protocol* and Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. Because HFCs and PFCs do not directly deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, they are not controlled by the *Montreal Protocol*.

These compounds, however, along with sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), are potent greenhouse gases. In addition to having high global warming potentials, SF₆ and many HFCs and PFCs have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, resulting in their essentially irreversible accumulation in the atmosphere. Sulfur hexafluoride, itself, is the most potent greenhouse gas the IPCC has evaluated.

In addition to their use as substitutes for ozone depleting substances, the other industrial sources of these gases are aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacturing, electrical transmission and distribution, and magnesium production and processing. Figure ES-13 and Table ES-11 present emission estimates for HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆, which totaled 37.1 MMTCE in 1997.

Figure ES-13

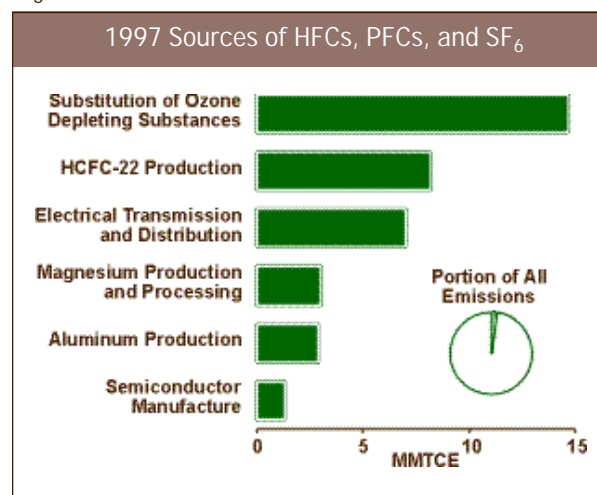


Table ES-11: Emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ (MMTCE)

Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.4	4.0	9.5	11.9	14.7
HCFC-22 Production	9.5	8.4	9.5	8.7	8.6	7.4	8.5	8.2
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0
Aluminum Production	4.9	4.7	4.1	3.5	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.9
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3
Total	22.2	21.6	23.0	23.4	25.9	30.8	34.7	37.1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

The use and subsequent emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes increased dramatically from small amounts in 1990 to 14.7 MMTCE in 1997. This increase was the result of efforts to phase-out CFCs and other ODSs in the United States, especially the introduction of HFC-134a as a CFC substitute in refrigeration applications. This trend is expected to continue for many years, and will accelerate in the early part of the next century as HCFCs, which are interim substitutes in many applications, are themselves phased-out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol*.

Other Industrial Sources

HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are also emitted from a number of other industrial processes. During the production of primary aluminum, two PFCs (CF₄ and C₂F₆) are emitted as intermittent by-products of the smelting process. Emissions from aluminum production were estimated to have decreased by 41 percent between 1990 and 1997 due to voluntary emission reductions efforts by the industry and falling domestic aluminum production.

HFC-23 is a by-product emitted during the production of HCFC-22. Emissions from this source were 8.2 MMTCE in 1997, and have decreased by 14 percent since 1990 due mainly to voluntary efforts by industry.

The semiconductor industry uses combinations of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ for plasma etching and chemical vapor deposition processes. For 1997, it was estimated that the U.S. semiconductor industry emitted a total of 1.3 MMTCE. These gases were not widely used in the industry in 1990.

The primary use of SF₆ is as a dielectric in electrical transmission and distribution systems. Fugitive emissions of SF₆ occur from leaks in and servicing of substations and circuit breakers, especially from older equipment. Estimated emissions from this source increased by 25 percent from 1990, to 7.0 MMTCE in 1997.

Lastly, SF₆ is also used as a protective covergas for the casting of molten magnesium. Estimated emissions from primary magnesium production and magnesium casting were 3.0 MMTCE in 1997, an increase of 76 percent since 1990.

Criteria Pollutant Emissions

In the United States, carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂) are commonly referred to as “criteria pollutants,” as termed in the Clean Air Act. Carbon monoxide is produced when carbon-containing fuels are combusted incompletely. Nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are created by lightning, fires, fossil fuel combustion, and in the stratosphere from nitrous oxide. NMVOCs—which include such compounds as propane, butane, and ethane—are emitted primarily from transportation, industrial processes, and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. In the United States, SO₂ is primarily emitted from the combustion of fossil fuels and by the metals industry.

In part because of their contribution to the formation of urban smog (and acid rain in the case of SO₂), criteria pollutants are regulated under the Clean Air Act. These gases also indirectly affect the global climate by reacting with other chemical compounds in the atmosphere to form compounds that are greenhouse gases. Unlike other criteria pollutants, SO₂ emitted into the atmosphere is believed to affect the Earth’s radiative budget negatively; therefore, it is discussed separately.

The most important of the indirect climate change effects of criteria pollutants is their role as precursors of tropospheric ozone. In this role, they contribute to ozone formation and alter the atmospheric lifetimes of other greenhouse gases. For example, CO interacts with the hydroxyl radical—the major atmospheric sink for methane emissions—to form CO₂. Therefore, increased atmospheric concentrations of CO limit the number of hydroxyl molecules (OH) available to destroy methane.

⁵ NO_x and CO emission estimates from agricultural burning were estimated separately, and therefore not taken from EPA (1998).

Box ES-4: Emissions of Ozone Depleting Substances

Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and other halogenated compounds were first emitted into the atmosphere this century. This family of man-made compounds includes CFCs, halons, methyl chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, methyl bromide, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs). These substances have been used in a variety of industrial applications, including refrigeration, air conditioning, foam blowing, solvent cleaning, sterilization, fire extinguishing, coatings, paints, and aerosols.

Because these compounds have been shown to deplete stratospheric ozone, they are typically referred to as ozone depleting substances (ODSs). In addition, they are potent greenhouse gases.

Recognizing the harmful effects of these compounds on the ozone layer, in 1987 many governments signed the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer* to limit the production and importation of a number of CFCs and other halogenated compounds. The United States furthered its commitment to phase-out ODSs by signing and ratifying the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol* in 1992. Under these amendments, the United States committed to ending the production and importation of halons by 1994, and CFCs by 1996.

The IPCC Guidelines do not include reporting instructions for estimating emissions of ODSs because their use is being phased-out under the *Montreal Protocol*. The United States believes, however, that a greenhouse gas emissions inventory is incomplete without these emissions; therefore, estimates for several Class I and Class II ODSs are provided in Table ES-12. Compounds are grouped by class according to their ozone depleting potential. Class I compounds are the primary ODSs; Class II compounds include partially halogenated chlorine compounds (HCFCs), some of which were developed as interim replacements for CFCs. Because these HCFC compounds are only partially halogenated, their hydrogen-carbon bonds are more vulnerable to oxidation in the troposphere and, therefore, pose only one-tenth to one-hundredth the threat to stratospheric ozone compared to CFCs.

It should be noted that the effects of these compounds on radiative forcing are not provided. Although many ODSs have relatively high direct GWPs, their indirect effects from ozone—also a greenhouse gas—destruction are believed to have negative radiative forcing effects, and therefore could significantly reduce the overall magnitude of their radiative forcing effects. Given the uncertainties surrounding the net effect of these gases, emissions are reported on an unweighted basis.

Table ES-12: Emissions of Ozone Depleting Substances (Mg)

Compound	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Class I								
CFC-11	53,500	48,300	45,100	45,400	36,600	36,200	26,600	25,100
CFC-12	112,600	103,500	80,500	79,300	57,600	51,800	35,500	23,100
CFC-113	26,350	20,550	17,100	17,100	8,550	8,550	+	+
CFC-114	4,700	3,600	3,000	3,000	1,600	1,600	300	100
CFC-115	4,200	4,000	3,800	3,600	3,300	3,000	3,200	2,900
Carbon Tetrachloride	32,300	31,000	21,700	18,600	15,500	4,700	+	+
Methyl Chloroform	158,300	154,700	108,300	92,850	77,350	46,400	+	+
Halon-1211	1,000	1,100	1,000	1,100	1,000	1,100	1,100	1,100
Halon-1301	1,800	1,800	1,700	1,700	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,300
Class II								
HCFC-22	79,789	79,540	79,545	71,224	71,386	74,229	77,472	79,620
HCFC-123	+	+	285	570	844	1,094	1,335	1,555
HCFC-124	+	+	429	2,575	4,768	5,195	5,558	5,894
HCFC-141b	+	+	+	1,909	6,529	11,608	14,270	12,113
HCFC-142b	+	+	3,526	9,055	14,879	21,058	27,543	28,315
HCFC-225ca/cb	+	+	+	+	+	565	579	593

Source: EPA Office of Air and Radiation estimates
+ Does not exceed 10 Mg

Since 1970, the United States has published estimates of annual emissions of criteria pollutants (EPA 1998).⁵ Table ES-13 shows that fuel combustion accounts for the majority of emissions of these gases. In 1997, fossil fuel combustion by mobile sources emitted 49, 81,

and 41 percent of U.S. NO_x, CO, and NMVOC emissions, respectively. Industrial processes—such as the manufacture of chemical and allied products, metals processing, and industrial uses of solvents—were also significant sources of CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs.

Table ES-13: Emissions of NO_x, CO, NMVOCs, and SO₂ (Gg)

Gas/Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
NO_x	21,139	21,213	21,460	21,685	21,964	21,432	21,160	21,267
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	9,884	9,779	9,914	10,080	9,993	9,822	9,543	9,729
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,231	10,558	10,659	10,749	10,949	10,732	10,636	10,519
Oil and Gas Activities	139	110	134	111	106	100	100	104
Industrial Processes	771	648	629	603	774	656	754	781
Solvent Use	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
Agricultural Burning	30	30	34	28	37	30	34	37
Waste	83	86	87	112	103	89	91	94
CO	83,056	84,776	81,764	81,696	85,729	76,699	78,350	75,158
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,999	5,313	5,583	5,068	5,007	5,383	5,424	4,369
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	66,429	70,256	68,503	68,974	70,655	63,846	63,205	60,794
Oil and Gas Activities	302	313	337	337	307	316	316	330
Industrial Processes	9,580	7,166	5,480	5,500	7,787	5,370	7,523	7,689
Solvent Use	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	6
Agricultural Burning	763	712	824	681	858	703	786	843
Waste	979	1,012	1,032	1,133	1,111	1,075	1,091	1,127
NMVOCs	18,723	18,838	18,453	18,622	19,191	18,360	17,209	17,129
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	912	975	1,011	901	898	973	978	780
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	7,952	8,133	7,774	7,819	8,110	7,354	7,156	6,949
Oil and Gas Activities	555	581	574	588	587	582	469	488
Industrial Processes	3,193	2,997	2,825	2,907	3,057	2,873	2,521	2,622
Solvent Use	5,217	5,245	5,353	5,458	5,590	5,609	5,691	5,882
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Waste	895	907	916	949	949	968	393	407
SO₂	21,870	21,258	21,076	20,729	20,187	17,741	17,972	18,477
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	18,407	17,959	17,684	17,459	17,134	14,724	15,253	15,658
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,728	1,729	1,791	1,708	1,524	1,525	1,217	1,252
Oil and Gas Activities	390	343	377	347	344	334	334	349
Industrial Processes	1,306	1,187	1,186	1,159	1,135	1,116	1,125	1,175
Solvent Use	+	+	+	1	1	1	1	1
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Waste	38	39	39	56	48	42	42	44

Source: (EPA 1998) except for estimates from agricultural burning.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

NA (Not Available)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Box ES-5: Sources and Effects of Sulfur Dioxide

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes affects the Earth's radiative budget through its photochemical transformation into sulfate aerosols that can (1) scatter sunlight back to space, thereby reducing the radiation reaching the Earth's surface; (2) affect cloud formation; and (3) affect atmospheric chemical composition (e.g., stratospheric ozone, by providing surfaces for heterogeneous chemical reactions). The overall effect of SO₂ derived aerosols on radiative forcing is believed to be negative (IPCC 1996). However, because SO₂ is short-lived and unevenly distributed in the atmosphere, its radiative forcing impacts are highly uncertain.

Sulfur dioxide is also a major contributor to the formation of urban smog, which can cause significant increases in acute and chronic respiratory diseases. Once SO₂ is emitted, it is chemically transformed in the atmosphere and returns to the Earth as the primary source of acid rain. Because of these harmful effects, the United States has regulated SO₂ emissions in the Clean Air Act. Electric utilities are the largest source of SO₂ emissions in the United States, accounting for 64 percent in 1997. Coal combustion contributes nearly all of those emissions (approximately 96 percent). Sulfur dioxide emissions have significantly decreased in recent years, primarily as a result of electric utilities switching from high sulfur to low sulfur coal.

1. Introduction

This report presents estimates by the United States government of U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for the years 1990 through 1997. A summary of these estimates is provided in Table 1-4 and Table 1-5 by gas and source category. The emission estimates in these tables are presented on both a full molecular mass basis and on a Global Warming Potential (GWP) weighted basis in order to show the relative contribution of each gas to global average radiative forcing.^{1,2} This report also discusses the methods and data used to calculate these emission estimates.

In June of 1992, the United States signed the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The objective of the UNFCCC is “to achieve...stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system.”^{3,4}

Parties to the Convention, by signing, make commitments “to develop, periodically update, publish and make available...national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, using comparable methodologies...”⁵ The United States views this report as an opportunity to fulfill this commitment under UNFCCC.

In 1988, preceding the creation of the UNFCCC, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) was jointly established by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). The charter of the IPCC is to assess available scientific information on climate change, assess the environmental and socio-economic impacts of climate change, and formulate response strategies (IPCC 1996). Under Working Group 1 of the IPCC, nearly 140 scientists and national experts from more than thirty countries corroborated in the creation of the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) to ensure that the emission inventories submitted to the UNFCCC are consistent and comparable between nations. The *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* were accepted by the IPCC at its Twelfth Session (Mexico City, 11-13 September 1996). The information provided in this inventory is presented in accordance with these guidelines, unless otherwise noted. Additionally, in order to fully comply with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, the United States has provided a copy of the IPCC reporting tables in Annex N and estimates of carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel combustion using the IPCC Reference Approach in Annex O.

¹ See the section below entitled *Global Warming Potentials* for an explanation of GWP values.

² See the section below entitled *What is Climate Change?* for an explanation of radiative forcing.

³ The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

⁴ Article 2 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change.

⁵ Article 4 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change (also identified in Article 12).

Overall, the purpose of an inventory of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions is (1) to provide a basis for the ongoing development of methodologies for estimating sources and sinks of greenhouse gases; (2) to provide a common and consistent mechanism through which Parties to the UNFCCC can estimate emissions and compare the relative contribution of individual sources, gases, and nations to climate change; and (3) as a prerequisite for evaluating the cost-effectiveness and feasibility of pursuing possible mitigation strategies.

What is Climate Change?

Climate change refers to long-term fluctuations in temperature, precipitation, wind, and other elements of the Earth's climate system.⁶ Natural processes such as solar-irradiance variations, variations in the Earth's orbital parameters,⁷ and volcanic activity can produce variations in climate. The climate system can also be influenced by changes in the concentration of various gases in the atmosphere, which affect the Earth's absorption of radiation.

The Earth naturally absorbs and reflects incoming solar radiation and emits longer wavelength terrestrial (thermal) radiation back into space. On average, the absorbed solar radiation is balanced by the outgoing terrestrial radiation emitted to space. A portion of this terrestrial radiation, though, is itself absorbed by gases in the atmosphere. The energy from this absorbed terrestrial radiation warms the Earth's surface and atmosphere, creating what is known as the "natural greenhouse effect." Without the natural heat-trapping properties of these atmospheric gases, the average surface temperature of the Earth would be about 34°C lower (IPCC 1996).

Under the United Nations FCCC, the definition of climate change is "a change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods."⁸ Given that definition, in its 1995 assessment of the science of climate change, the IPCC concluded that:

Human activities are changing the atmospheric concentrations and distributions of greenhouse gases and aerosols. These changes can produce a radiative forcing by changing either the reflection or absorption of solar radiation, or the emission and absorption of terrestrial radiation (IPCC 1996).

The IPCC went on to report in its assessment that the "[g]lobal mean surface temperature [of the Earth] has increased by between about 0.3 and 0.6 °C since the late 19th century..." (IPCC 1996) and finally concluded with the following statement:

Our ability to quantify the human influence on global climate is currently limited because the expected signal is still emerging from the noise of natural variability, and because there are uncertainties in key factors. These include the magnitude and patterns of long term natural variability and the time-evolving pattern of forcing by, and response to, changes in concentrations of greenhouse gases and aerosols, and land surface changes. Nevertheless, the balance of the evidence suggests that there is a discernable human influence on global climate (IPCC 1996).

Greenhouse Gases

Although the Earth's atmosphere consists mainly of oxygen and nitrogen, neither play a significant role in this greenhouse effect because both are essentially transparent to terrestrial radiation. The greenhouse effect is primarily a function of the concentration of water vapor, carbon dioxide, and other trace gases in the atmosphere that absorb the terrestrial radiation leaving the surface of the Earth (IPCC 1996). Changes in the atmospheric concentrations of these greenhouse gases can alter the balance of energy transfers between the atmosphere, space, land, and the oceans. A gauge of these changes is called radiative forcing, which is a simple measure of changes in the energy available to the Earth-atmosphere system (IPCC 1996). Holding everything else constant, increases in greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere will produce positive radiative forcing (i.e., a net increase in the absorption of energy by the Earth).

⁶ The Earth's climate system comprises the atmosphere, oceans, biosphere, cryosphere, and geosphere.

⁷ For example, eccentricity, precession, and inclination.

⁸ Article 1 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change.

Climate change can be driven by changes in the atmospheric concentrations of a number of radiatively active gases and aerosols. We have clear evidence that human activities have affected concentrations, distributions and life cycles of these gases (IPCC 1996).

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and ozone (O₃). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, emitted solely by human activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as halons. Other fluorine containing halogenated substances include hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). There are also several gases that, although they do not have a direct radiative forcing effect, do influence the formation and destruction of ozone, which does have such a terrestrial radiation absorbing effect. These gases—referred to here as ozone precursors—include carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs).⁹ Aerosols—extremely small particles or liquid droplets often produced by emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂)—can also affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere.

Carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide are continuously emitted to and removed from the atmosphere by natural processes on Earth. Anthropogenic activities, however, can cause additional quantities of these and other greenhouse gases to be emitted or sequestered, thereby changing their global average atmospheric concentrations. Natural activities such as respiration by plants or animals and seasonal cycles of plant growth and decay are examples of processes that only cycle carbon or nitrogen between the atmosphere and organic biomass. Such processes—except when directly or indirectly perturbed out of equilibrium by anthropogenic activities—generally do not alter average atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations over decadal timeframes. Climatic changes resulting from anthropo-

genic activities, however, could have positive or negative feedback effects on these natural systems.

A brief description of each greenhouse gas, its sources, and its role in the atmosphere is given below. The following section then explains the concept of Global Warming Potentials (GWPs), which are assigned to individual gases as a measure of their relative average global radiative forcing effect.

Water Vapor (H₂O). Overall, the most abundant and dominant greenhouse gas in the atmosphere is water vapor. Water vapor is neither long-lived nor well-mixed in the atmosphere, varying spatially from 0 to 2 percent (IPCC 1996). In addition, atmospheric water can exist in several physical states including gaseous, liquid, and solid. Human activities are not believed to directly affect the average global concentration of water vapor; however, the radiative forcing produced by the increased concentrations of other greenhouse gases may indirectly affect the hydrologic cycle. A warmer atmosphere has an increased water holding capacity; yet, increased concentrations of water vapor affects the formation of clouds, which can both absorb and reflect solar and terrestrial radiation.

Carbon Dioxide (CO₂). In nature, carbon is cycled between various atmospheric, oceanic, land biotic, marine biotic, and mineral reservoirs. The largest fluxes occur between the atmosphere and terrestrial biota, and between the atmosphere and surface water of the oceans. In the atmosphere, carbon predominantly exists in its oxidized form as CO₂. Atmospheric carbon dioxide is part of this global carbon cycle, and therefore its fate is a complex function of geochemical and biological processes. Carbon dioxide concentrations in the atmosphere, as of 1994, increased from approximately 280 parts per million by volume (ppmv) in pre-industrial¹⁰ times to 358 ppmv, a 28 percent increase (IPCC 1996).¹¹ The IPCC has stated that “[t]here is no doubt that this increase is largely due to human activities, in particular fossil fuel combustion...” (IPCC 1996). Forest clearing, other biomass burning, and some non-energy production processes (e.g., cement production) also emit notable quantities of carbon dioxide.

⁹ Also referred to in the U.S. Clean Air Act as “criteria pollutants.”

In its latest scientific assessment, the IPCC also stated that “[t]he increased amount of carbon dioxide [in the atmosphere] is leading to climate change and will produce, on average, a global warming of the Earth’s surface because of its enhanced greenhouse effect—although the magnitude and significance of the effects are not fully resolved” (IPCC 1996).

Methane (CH₄). Methane is primarily produced through anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in biological systems. Agricultural processes such as wetland rice cultivation, enteric fermentation in animals, and the decomposition of animal wastes emit CH₄, as does the decomposition of municipal solid wastes. Methane is also emitted during the production and distribution of natural gas and petroleum, and is released as a by-product of coal mining and incomplete fossil fuel combustion. The average global concentration of methane in the atmosphere was 1,720 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) in 1994, a 145 percent increase from the pre-industrial concentration of 700 ppbv (IPCC 1996). It is estimated that 60 to 80 percent of current CH₄ emissions are the result of anthropogenic activities. Carbon isotope measurements indicate that roughly 20 percent of methane emissions are from fossil fuel consumption, and an equal percentage is produced by natural wetlands, which will likely increase with rising temperatures and rising microbial action (IPCC 1996).

Methane is removed from the atmosphere by reacting with the hydroxyl radical (OH) and is ultimately converted to CO₂. Increasing emissions of methane, though, reduces the concentration of OH, and thereby the rate of further methane removal (IPCC 1996).

Nitrous Oxide (N₂O). Anthropogenic sources of N₂O emissions include agricultural soils, especially the use of synthetic and manure fertilizers; fossil fuel combustion, especially from mobile sources; adipic (nylon) and nitric acid production; wastewater treatment and

waste combustion; and biomass burning. The atmospheric concentration of nitrous oxide (N₂O) in 1994 was about 312 parts per billion by volume (ppbv), while pre-industrial concentrations were roughly 275 ppbv. The majority of this 13 percent increase has occurred after the pre-industrial period and is most likely due to anthropogenic activities (IPCC 1996). Nitrous oxide is removed from the atmosphere primarily by the photolytic action of sunlight in the stratosphere.

Ozone (O₃). Ozone is present in both the upper stratosphere,¹² where it shields the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation, and at lower concentrations in the troposphere¹³, where it is the main component of anthropogenic photochemical “smog”. During the last two decades, emissions of anthropogenic chlorine and bromine-containing halocarbons, such as chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), have depleted stratospheric ozone concentrations. This loss of ozone in the stratosphere has resulted in negative radiative forcing, representing an indirect effect of anthropogenic emissions of chlorine and bromine compounds (IPCC 1996).

Tropospheric ozone, which is also a greenhouse gas, is produced from the oxidation of methane and from reactions with precursor gases such as carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). This latter group of ozone precursors are included in the category referred to as “criteria pollutants” in the United States under the Clean Air Act¹⁴ and its subsequent amendments. The tropospheric concentrations of both ozone and these precursor gases are short-lived and, therefore, spatially variable.

Halocarbons. Halocarbons are for the most part man-made chemicals that have both direct and indirect radiative forcing effects. Halocarbons that contain chlorine—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), methyl chloroform, and carbon tetrachloride—and bromine—halons, methyl bromide, and

¹⁰ The pre-industrial period is considered as the time preceding the year 1750 (IPCC 1996).

¹¹ Carbon dioxide concentrations during the last 1,000 years of the pre-industrial period (i.e., 750-1750), a time of relative climate stability, fluctuated by about ±10 ppmv around 280 ppmv (IPCC 1996).

¹² The stratosphere is the layer from the troposphere up to roughly 50 kilometers. In the lower regions the temperature is nearly constant but in the upper layer the temperature increases rapidly because of sunlight absorption by the ozone-layer. The ozone-layer is the part of the stratosphere from 19 kilometers up to 48 kilometers where the concentration of ozone reaches up to 10 parts per million.

¹³ The troposphere is the layer from the ground up to 11 kilometers near the poles and up to 16 kilometers in equatorial regions (i.e., the lowest layer of the atmosphere where people live). It contains roughly 80 percent of the mass of all gases in the atmosphere and is the site for most weather processes, including most of the water vapor and clouds.

hydrobromofluorocarbons (HBFCs)—result in stratospheric ozone depletion and are therefore controlled under the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. Although CFCs and HCFCs include potent global warming gases, their net radiative forcing effect on the atmosphere is reduced because they cause stratospheric ozone depletion, which is itself an important greenhouse gas in addition to shielding the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation. Under the *Montreal Protocol*, the United States phased-out the production and importation of halons by 1994 and of CFCs by 1996. Under the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Protocol*, a cap was placed on the production and importation of HCFCs by non-Article 5¹⁵ countries beginning in 1996, and then followed by a complete phase-out by the year 2030. The ozone depleting gases covered under the *Montreal Protocol* and its Amendments are not covered by the UNFCCC; however, they are reported in this inventory under Annex K.

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) are not ozone depleting substances, and therefore are not covered under the *Montreal Protocol*. They are, however, powerful greenhouse gases. HFCs—primarily used as replacements for ozone depleting substances but also emitted as a by-product of the HCFC-22 manufacturing process—currently have a small aggregate radiative forcing impact; however, it is anticipated that their contribution to overall radiative forcing will increase (IPCC 1996). PFCs and SF₆ are predominantly emitted from various industrial processes including aluminum smelting, semiconductor manufacturing, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium casting. Currently, the radiative forcing impact of PFCs, and SF₆ is also small; however, because they have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, their concentrations tend to irreversibly accumulate in the atmosphere.

Carbon Monoxide (CO). Carbon monoxide has an indirect radiative forcing effect by elevating concentrations of CH₄ and tropospheric ozone through chemical reactions with other atmospheric constituents (e.g., the hydroxyl radi-

cal) that would otherwise assist in destroying CH₄ and tropospheric ozone. Carbon monoxide is created when carbon-containing fuels are burned incompletely. Through natural processes in the atmosphere, it is eventually oxidized to CO₂. Carbon monoxide concentrations are both short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x). The primary climate change effects of nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are indirect and result from their role in promoting the formation of ozone in the troposphere and, to a lesser degree, lower stratosphere, where it has positive radiative forcing effects. (NO_x emissions injected higher in the stratosphere¹⁶ can lead to stratospheric ozone depletion.) Nitrogen oxides are created from lightning, soil microbial activity, biomass burning (both natural and anthropogenic fires), fossil fuel combustion, and, in the stratosphere, from nitrous oxide (N₂O). Concentrations of NO_x are both relatively short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Nonmethane Volatile Organic Compounds (NMVOCs). Nonmethane volatile organic compounds include compounds such as propane, butane, and ethane. These compounds participate, along with NO_x, in the formation of tropospheric ozone and other photochemical oxidants. NMVOCs are emitted primarily from transportation and industrial processes, as well as biomass burning and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. Concentrations of NMVOCs tend to be both short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Aerosols. Aerosols are extremely small particles or liquid droplets found in the atmosphere. They can be produced by natural events such as dust storms and volcanic activity or by anthropogenic processes such as fuel combustion. Their effect upon radiative forcing is to both absorb radiation and to alter cloud formation, thereby affecting the reflectivity (i.e., albedo) of the Earth. Aerosols are removed from the atmosphere primarily by precipitation, and generally have short atmospheric lifetimes. Like ozone precursors, aerosol concentrations and composition vary by region (IPCC 1996).

¹⁴ [42 U.S.C § 7408, CAA § 108]

¹⁵ Article 5 of the *Montreal Protocol* covers several groups of countries, especially developing countries, with low consumption rates of ozone depleting substances. Developing countries with per capita consumption of less than 0.3 kg of certain ozone depleting substances (weighted by their ozone depleting potential) receive financial assistance and a grace period of ten additional years in the phase-out of ozone depleting substances.

¹⁶ Primarily from fuel combustion emissions from high altitude supersonic aircraft.

Anthropogenic aerosols in the troposphere are primarily the result of sulfur dioxide (SO₂)¹⁷ emissions from fossil fuel and biomass burning. Overall, aerosols tend to produce a negative radiative forcing effect (i.e., net cooling effect on the climate), although because they are short-lived in the atmosphere—lasting days to weeks—their concentrations respond rapidly to changes in emissions.¹⁸ Locally, the negative radiative forcing effects of aerosols can offset the positive forcing of greenhouse gases (IPCC 1996). “However, the aerosol effects do not cancel the global-scale effects of the much longer-lived greenhouse gases, and significant climate changes can still result” (IPCC 1996). Emissions of sulfur dioxide are provided in Annex L of this report.

Global Warming Potentials

A Global Warming Potential (GWP) is intended as a quantified measure of the relative radiative forcing impacts of a particular greenhouse gas (see Table 1-1). It is defined as the cumulative radiative forcing—both direct and indirect effects—over a specified time horizon resulting from the emission of a unit mass of gas relative to some reference gas (IPCC 1996). Direct effects occur when the gas itself is a greenhouse gas. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations involving the original gas produces a gas or gases that are greenhouse gases, or when a gas influences the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases. The reference gas used is CO₂, in which case GWP weighted emissions are measured in million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE). Carbon comprises 12/44ths of carbon dioxide by weight. In order to convert emissions reported in teragrams (Tg) of a gas to MMTCE, the following equation is used:

$$\text{MMTCE} = (\text{Tg of gas}) \times (\text{GWP}) \times \left(\frac{12}{44}\right)$$

where,

MMTCE = Million Metric Tons of Carbon Equivalents

Tg = Teragrams (equivalent to million metric tons)

GWP = Global Warming Potential

$\left(\frac{12}{44}\right)$ = Carbon to carbon dioxide molecular weight ratio.

GWP values allow policy makers to compare the impacts of emissions and reductions of different gases. According to the IPCC, GWPs typically have an uncertainty of ±35 percent. The parties to the UNFCCC have also agreed to use GWPs based upon a 100 year time horizon although other time horizon values are available.

*In addition to communicating emissions in units of mass, Parties may choose also to use global warming potentials (GWPs) to reflect their inventories and projections in carbon dioxide-equivalent terms, using information provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in its Second Assessment Report. Any use of GWPs should be based on the effects of the greenhouse gases over a 100-year time horizon. In addition, Parties may also use other time horizons.*¹⁹

Greenhouse gases with long atmospheric lifetimes (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆) tend to be evenly distributed throughout the atmosphere, and consequently global average concentrations can be determined. The short-lived gases such as water vapor, tropospheric ozone, ozone precursors (e.g., NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs), and tropospheric aerosols (e.g., SO₂ products), however, vary regionally, and consequently it is difficult to quantify their global radiative forcing impacts. No GWP values are attributed to these gases that are short-lived and spatially inhomogeneous in the atmosphere. Other greenhouse gases not yet listed by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), but are already or soon will be in commercial use include: HFC-245fa, hydrofluoroethers (HFEs), and nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃).

A more detailed technical discussion on the derivation of and uncertainties in GWP values can be found in Annex J.

¹⁷ Sulfur dioxide is a primary anthropogenic contributor to the formation of “acid rain” and other forms of atmospheric acid deposition.

¹⁸ Volcanic activity can inject significant quantities of aerosol producing sulfur dioxide and other sulfur compounds into the stratosphere, which can result in a longer negative forcing effect (i.e., a few years) (IPCC 1996).

¹⁹ Framework Convention on Climate Change; FCCC/CP/1996/15/Add.1; 29 October 1996; Report of the Conference of the Parties at its second session; held at Geneva from 8 to 19 July 1996; Addendum; Part Two: Action taken by the Conference of the Parties at its second session; Decision 9/CP.2; Communications from Parties included in Annex I to the Convention: guidelines, schedule and process for consideration; Annex: Revised Guidelines for the Preparation of National Communications by Parties Included in Annex I to the Convention; p. 18.

Table 1-1: Global Warming Potentials and Atmospheric Lifetimes (Years)

Gas	Atmospheric Lifetime	GWP ^a
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	50-200	1
Methane (CH ₄) ^b	12 ± 3	21
Nitrous oxide (N ₂ O)	120	310
HFC-23	264	11,700
HFC-125	32.6	2,800
HFC-134a	14.6	1,300
HFC-143a	48.3	3,800
HFC-152a	1.5	140
HFC-227ea	36.5	2,900
HFC-236fa	209	6,300
HFC-4310mee	17.1	1,300
CF ₄	50,000	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	10,000	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	2,600	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	3,200	7,400
SF ₆	3,200	23,900

Source: (IPCC 1996)
^a 100 year time horizon
^b The methane GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Total U.S. greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions rose in 1997 to 1,813.6 million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE) (11.1 percent above 1990 baseline levels). The single year increase in emissions from 1996 to 1997 was 1.3 percent (23.1 MMTCE), down from the previous year's increase of 3.3 percent. Figure 1-1 through Figure 1-3 illustrate the overall trends in total U.S. emissions by gas, annual changes, and absolute changes since 1990.

The largest source of U.S. GHG emissions was carbon dioxide (CO₂) from fossil fuel combustion, which accounted for 81 percent of weighted emissions in 1997. Emissions from this source grew by 11 percent (138.8 MMTCE) over the from 1990 to 1997 and were responsible for over three-quarters of the increase in national emissions during this period. The annual increase in CO₂ emissions from this source was 1.3 percent in 1997, also down from the previous year's high when increased fossil fuel consumption drove up emissions by 3.6 percent.

The dramatic increase in fossil fuel combustion-related CO₂ emissions in 1996 was primarily a function of two factors: 1) fuel switching by electric utilities from natural gas to more carbon intensive coal as gas prices rose sharply due to weather conditions, which drove up residential consumption of natural gas for heating; and 2) higher petroleum consumption for transportation. In 1997, by comparison, electric utility natural gas consumption rose to regain much of the previous year's decline as the supply available rose due to lower residential consumption. Despite this increase in natural gas consumption by utilities and relatively stagnant U.S. electricity consumption, coal consumption rose in 1997 to offset the temporary shut-down of several nuclear power plants. Petroleum consumption for transportation activities in 1997 also grew by less than one per-

Figure 1-1

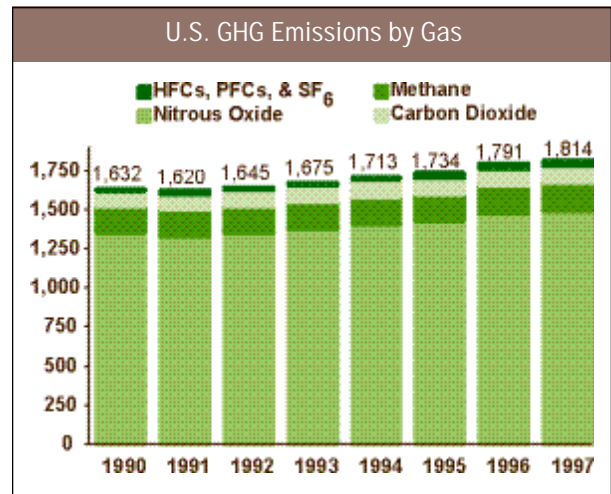


Figure 1-2

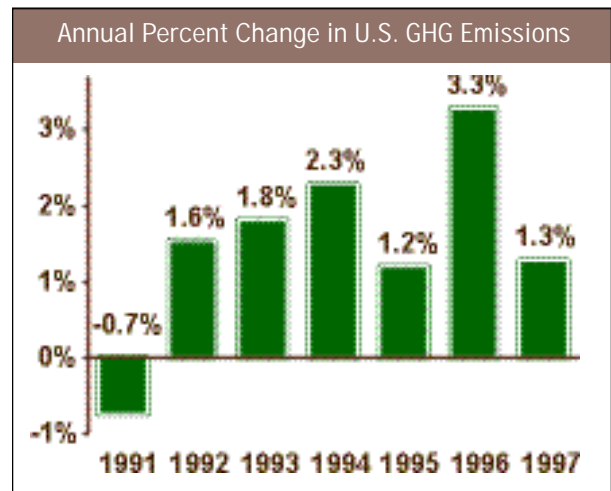
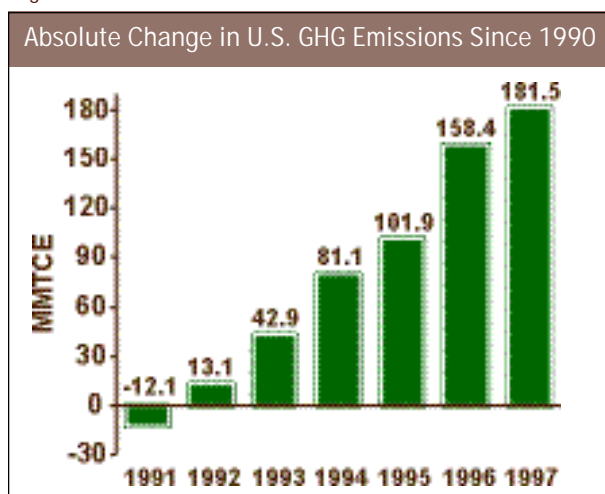


Figure 1-3



cent, compared to over three percent the previous year (see Table 1-2). The annual increase of CO₂ emissions from petroleum in 1997 is based on motor gasoline sales data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration; it is expected to be revised upward with the publication of future energy statistics.

Other significant trends in emissions from additional source categories over the eight year period from 1990 through 1997 included the following:

- Aggregate HFC and PFC emissions resulting from the substitution of ozone depleting substances (e.g., CFCs) increased dramatically (by 14.4 MMTCE). This increase was partly offset, however, by reductions in PFC emissions from aluminum production (41 percent) and HFC emissions from HCFC-22 production (14 percent), both as a result of voluntary industry emission reduction efforts and, in the former case, from falling domestic aluminum production.
- Combined N₂O and CH₄ emissions from mobile source fossil fuel combustion rose by 3.9 MMTCE (26 percent), primarily due to increased rates of N₂O generation in highway vehicles.
- Methane emissions from the decomposition of waste in municipal and industrial landfills rose by 10.5 MMTCE (19 percent) as the amount of organic matter in landfills steadily accumulated.
- Emissions from coal mining dropped by 5.2 MMTCE (21 percent) as the use of methane from degasification systems increased significantly.

Table 1-2: Annual Percent Change in CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion for Selected Sectors and Fuels

Sector	Fuel Type	1995 to 1996	1996 to 1997
Electric Utility	Coal	5.7%	2.9%
Electric Utility	Natural Gas	-14.6%	8.7%
Residential	Natural Gas	8.1%	-4.4%
Transportation*	Petroleum	3.4%	0.3%

* Excludes emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

- Nitrous oxide emissions from agricultural soil management increased by 8.8 MMTCE (13 percent) as fertilizer consumption and cultivation of nitrogen fixing crops rose.
- An additional domestic adipic acid plant installed emission control systems in 1997; this was estimated to have resulted in a 1.4 MMTCE (27 percent) decline in emissions from 1996 to 1997 despite an increase in production.

Overall, from 1990 to 1997 total emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O increased by 143.5 (11 percent), 9.7 (6 percent), and 13.4 MMTCE (14 percent), respectively. During the same period, weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 14.9 MMTCE (67 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principal greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because of their extremely high Global Warming Potentials and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by carbon sequestration in forests, which was estimated to be 11 percent of total emissions in 1997.

As an alternative, emissions can be aggregated across gases by the IPCC defined sectors, referred to here as chapters. Over the eight year period of 1990 to 1997, total emissions in the Energy, Industrial Processes, Agriculture, and Waste chapters climbed by 140.2 (10 percent), 17.6 (39 percent), 13.0 (11 percent), and 10.8 MMTCE (18 percent), respectively. Estimates of the quantity of carbon sequestered in the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter, although based on projections, declined in absolute value by 103.0 MMTCE (33 percent).

Box 1-1: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

There are several ways to assess a nation's greenhouse gas emitting intensity. These measures of intensity could be based on aggregate energy consumption because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions, on fossil fuel consumption only because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels, on electricity consumption because electric utilities were the largest sources of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 1997, on total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity, or on a per capita basis. Depending upon which of these measures was used, the United States could appear to have reduced or increased its national greenhouse gas intensity. Table 1-3 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the U.S. have grown at an average annual rate of 1.5 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy or fossil fuel consumption—thereby indicating an improved or lower greenhouse gas emitting intensity—and much slower than that for either electricity consumption or overall gross domestic product. Emissions, however, are growing faster than national population, thereby indicating a worsening or higher greenhouse gas emitting intensity on a per capita basis (see Figure 1-4). Overall, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations—a function of many complex anthropogenic and natural processes—are increasing at 0.4 percent per year.

Table 1-3: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990=100)

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	Growth Rate ^g
GHG Emissions ^a	100	99	101	103	105	106	110	111	1.5%
Energy Consumption ^b	100	100	101	104	106	108	112	112	1.6%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^c	100	99	101	104	106	107	110	112	1.6%
Electricity Consumption ^c	100	102	102	105	108	111	114	115	2.0%
GDP ^d	100	99	102	104	108	110	114	118	2.5%
Population ^e	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	1.0%
Atmospheric CO ₂ Concentration ^f	100	100	101	101	101	102	102	103	0.4%

^a GWP weighted values
^b Energy content weighted values. Source: DOE/EIA
^c Source: DOE/EIA
^d Gross Domestic Product in chained 1992 dollars (BEA 1998)
^e (U.S. Census Bureau 1998)
^f Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii (Keeling and Whorf 1998)
^g Average annual growth rate

Figure 1-4

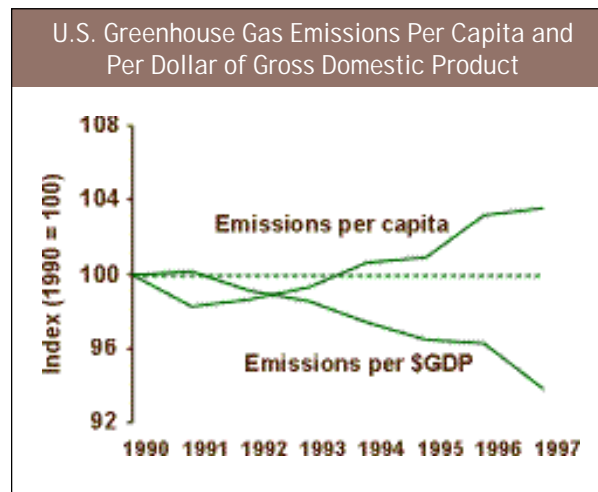


Table 1-5: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	4,929.2	4,875.8	4,948.5	5,057.0	5,146.1	5,203.6	5,387.4	5,455.6
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,866.2	4,812.8	4,885.4	4,988.7	5,074.4	5,125.1	5,308.3	5,375.2
Natural Gas Flaring	8.4	9.6	9.4	13.0	13.1	16.4	15.7	15.2
Cement Manufacture	32.6	31.9	32.1	33.9	35.4	36.1	36.4	37.5
Lime Manufacture	11.9	11.7	12.1	12.4	12.8	13.6	14.1	14.2
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.1	4.9	4.5	4.1	5.5	7.0	7.5	7.8
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.3	4.4
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2
Land-Use Change and Forestry (Sink) ^a	(1,142.2)	(1,142.2)	(1,142.2)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)
International Bunker Fuels ^b	99.3	101.9	106.4	109.6	100.4	93.3	93.0	97.5
CH₄	29.7	29.9	30.1	30.0	30.7	31.2	31.1	31.4
Stationary Sources	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Mobile Sources	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Coal Mining	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.3	3.3
Natural Gas Systems	5.7	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.8
Petroleum Systems	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Petrochemical Production	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Silicon Carbide Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Enteric Fermentation	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.0
Manure Management	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0
Rice Cultivation	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5
Agricultural Residue Burning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Landfills	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.6
Wastewater Treatment	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
International Bunker Fuels ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3
Stationary Source	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mobile Sources	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Adipic Acid	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+
Nitric Acid	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Manure Management	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Agricultural Soil Management	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9
Agricultural Residue Burning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Human Sewage	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Waste Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
International Bunker Fuels ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Aluminum Production	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
HCFC-22 Production ^c	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Semiconductor Manufacture	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Electrical Transmission and Distribution ^d	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Magnesium Production and Processing ^d	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
NO_x	21.1	21.2	21.5	21.7	22.0	21.4	21.2	21.3
CO	83.1	84.8	81.8	81.7	85.7	76.7	78.3	75.2
NMVOCs	18.7	18.8	18.5	18.6	19.2	18.4	17.2	17.1

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

M Mixture of multiple gases

^a Sinks are not included in CO₂ emissions total. Estimates of net carbon sequestration due to land-use change and forestry activities exclude non-forest soils, and are based partially upon projections of forest carbon stocks.^b Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.^c HFC-23 emitted^d SF₆ emitted

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Figure 1-5

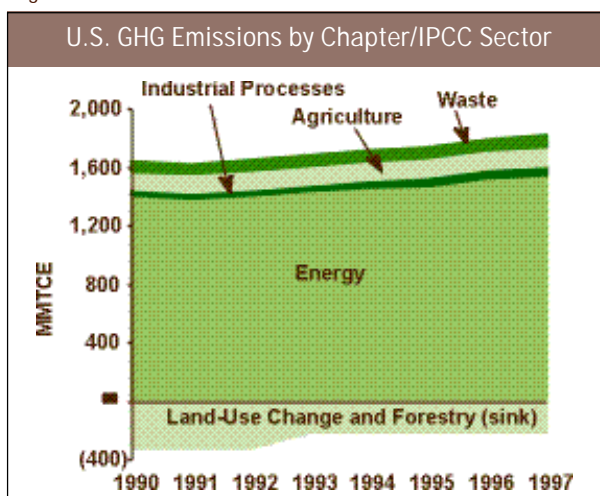


Table 1-6: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector (MMTCE)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Energy	1,409.0	1,394.6	1,415.2	1,442.6	1,466.3	1,482.1	1,531.6	1,549.2
Industrial Processes	45.4	44.8	46.0	47.2	51.2	57.0	61.6	63.0
Agriculture	118.4	120.0	123.1	122.4	130.9	128.0	128.9	131.4
Land-Use Change and Forestry (Sink)*	(311.5)	(311.5)	(311.5)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)
Waste	59.2	60.6	60.9	62.8	64.8	66.9	68.4	70.0
Total Emissions	1,632.1	1,620.0	1,645.2	1,675.0	1,713.2	1,733.9	1,790.5	1,813.6
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	1,320.6	1,308.5	1,333.7	1,466.5	1,504.7	1,525.4	1,582.0	1,605.0

* Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Estimates of net carbon sequestration due to land-use change and forestry activities exclude non-forest soils, and are based partially upon projections of forest carbon stocks.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Box 1-2: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Transportation Activities

Motor vehicle usage is increasing all over the world, including in the United States. Since the 1970s, the number of highway vehicles registered in the United States has increased faster than the overall population, according to the Federal Highway Administration. Likewise, the number of miles driven—up 18 percent from 1990 to 1997—and gallons of gasoline consumed each year in the United States have increased relatively steadily since the 1980s, according to the Energy Information Administration. These increases in motor vehicle usage are the result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, increasing urban sprawl, and low fuel prices.

One of the unintended consequences of these changes is a slowing of progress toward cleaner air in both urban and rural parts of the country. Passenger cars, trucks, motorcycles, and buses emit significant quantities of air pollutants with local, regional, and global effects. Motor vehicles are major sources of carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs). Motor vehicles are also important contributors to many serious air pollution problems, including ground level ozone or smog, acid rain, fine particulate matter, and global warming. Within the United States and abroad, government agencies have taken strong actions to reduce these emissions. Since the 1970s, the EPA has reduced lead in gasoline, developed strict emission standards for new passenger cars and trucks, directed states to enact comprehensive motor vehicle emission control programs, required inspection and maintenance programs, and more recently, introduced the use of reformulated gasoline to mitigate the air pollution impacts from motor vehicles. New vehicles are now equipped with advanced emissions controls, which are designed to reduce emissions of nitrogen oxides, hydrocarbons, and carbon monoxide.

This report reflects new data on the role that automotive catalytic converters play in emissions of N₂O, a powerful greenhouse gas. The EPA's Office of Mobile Sources has conducted a series of tests in order to measure the magnitude of N₂O emissions from gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks equipped with catalytic converters. Results show that N₂O emissions are lower than the IPCC default factors, and the United States has shared this data with the IPCC. In this report, new emission factors developed from these measurements and from previously published literature were used to calculate emissions from mobile sources in the United States (see Annex C).

Table 1-7 summarizes greenhouse gas emissions from all transportation-related activities. Overall, transportation activities—excluding international bunker fuels—accounted for an almost constant 26 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions from 1990 to 1997. These emissions were primarily CO₂ from fuel combustion, which increased by 10 percent from 1990 to 1997. However, because of larger increases in N₂O and HFC emissions during this period, overall emissions from transportation activities actually increased by 12 percent.

Table 1-7: Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (MMTCE)

Gas/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	405.0	396.7	402.4	406.8	422.1	430.7	445.3	446.5
Passenger Cars ^a	169.3	167.8	172.0	173.5	172.5	175.6	160.8	162.6
Light-Duty Trucks ^a	77.5	77.2	77.2	80.5	87.2	89.2	109.9	111.1
Other Trucks	57.3	55.1	56.7	59.9	62.7	64.2	68.3	69.5
Buses	2.7	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.0	3.0
Aircraft	50.5	48.4	47.4	47.6	49.6	48.3	50.5	50.1
Boats and Vessels	16.4	15.9	16.4	11.7	13.9	16.8	18.5	15.4
Locomotives	7.5	6.9	7.4	6.8	8.0	8.1	8.8	9.0
Other ^b	23.8	22.5	22.4	23.8	24.9	24.9	25.5	25.8
International Bunker Fuels ^c	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
CH₄	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Passenger Cars	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Light-Duty Trucks	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Other Trucks and Buses	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Aircraft	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Boats and Vessels	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Locomotives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other ^d	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
International Bunker Fuels ^c	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	13.6	14.2	15.2	15.9	16.7	17.0	17.4	17.5
Passenger Cars	8.7	9.1	9.7	10.1	10.0	10.1	8.9	9.1
Light-Duty Trucks	3.4	3.7	3.9	4.2	5.1	5.2	6.8	6.8
Other Trucks and Buses	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9
Aircraft ^d	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Boats and Vessels	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Locomotives	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other ^d	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
International Bunker Fuels ^c	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
HFCs	+	+	0.2	0.7	1.3	2.5	3.6	4.5
Mobile Air Conditioners ^e	+	+	0.2	0.7	1.3	2.5	3.6	4.5
Total^e	420.0	412.3	419.1	424.8	441.5	451.6	467.7	469.9

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a In 1996, the U.S. Federal Highway Administration modified the definition of light-duty trucks to include minivans and sport utility vehicles. Previously, these vehicles were included under the passenger cars category. Hence the sharp drop in CO₂ emissions for passenger cars from 1995 to 1996 was observed. This gap, however, was offset by an equivalent rise in CO₂ emissions from light-duty trucks.

^b "Other" CO₂ emissions include motorcycles, construction equipment, agricultural machinery, pipelines, and lubricants.

^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d "Other" CH₄ and N₂O emissions include motorcycles, construction equipment, agricultural machinery, gasoline-powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light commercial, logging, airport service, other equipment; and diesel-powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light construction, airport service.

^e Includes primarily HFC-134a

Box 1-3: Electric Utility-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Like transportation, activities related to the generation, transmission, and distribution of electricity in the United States result in greenhouse gas emissions. Table 1-8 presents greenhouse gas emissions from electric utility-related activities. Aggregate emissions from electric utilities of all greenhouse gases from electric utilities increased by 11.8 percent from 1990 to 1997, and accounted for just under 30 percent of total U.S. greenhouse emissions during the same period. The majority of these emissions resulted from the combustion of coal in boilers to produce steam that is passed through a turbine to generate electricity. Overall, the generation of electricity results in a larger portion of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions than any other activity.

Table 1-8: Electric Utility-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (MMTCE)

Gas/Fuel Type or Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	476.8	473.4	472.5	490.7	494.8	494.1	513.2	532.3
Coal	409.0	407.2	411.8	428.7	430.2	433.0	457.5	470.9
Natural Gas	41.2	41.1	40.7	39.5	44.0	47.2	40.3	43.8
Petroleum	26.6	25.1	19.9	22.5	20.6	14.0	15.4	17.6
Geothermal	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+
CH₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Stationary Sources (Utilities)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3
Stationary Sources (Utilities)	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3
SF₆	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Total	484.6	481.4	480.8	499.3	503.7	503.3	522.5	541.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology and Data Sources

Emissions of greenhouse gases from various sources have been estimated using methodologies that are consistent with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), except where noted otherwise. To the extent possible, the present U.S. inventory relies on published activity and emission factor data. Depending on the emission source category, *activity data* can include fuel consumption or deliveries, vehicle-miles traveled, raw material processed, etc.; *emission factors* are factors that relate quantities of emissions to an activity. For some sources, IPCC default methodologies and emission factors have been employed. However, for emission sources considered to be major sources in the United States, the IPCC default methodologies were expanded and more comprehensive methods were applied.

Inventory emission estimates from energy consumption and production activities are based primarily on the latest official fuel consumption data from the Energy Information Administration of the Department of Energy (EIA). Emission estimates for NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs were taken directly, except where noted, from the United States Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) report, *National Air Pollutant Emission Trends 1900 - 1997* (EPA 1998), which is an annual EPA publication that provides the latest estimates of regional and national emissions for ozone precursors (i.e., criteria pollutants). Emissions of these pollutants are estimated by the EPA based on statistical information

about each source category, emission factors, and control efficiencies. While the EPA's estimation methodologies for criteria pollutants are conceptually similar to the IPCC recommended methodologies, the large number of sources EPA used in developing its estimates makes it difficult to reproduce the methodologies from EPA (1997) in this inventory document. In these instances, the sources containing detailed documentation of the methods used are referenced for the interested reader. For agricultural sources, the EPA criteria pollutant emission estimates were supplemented using available activity data from other agencies. Complete documentation of the methodologies and data sources used is provided in conjunction with the discussion of each source and in the various annexes.

Carbon dioxide emissions from fuel combusted in ships or aircraft engaged in the international transport of passengers or cargo are not included in U.S. totals, but are reported separately as international bunkers in accordance with IPCC reporting guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Carbon dioxide emissions from fuel combusted within U.S. territories, however, are included in U.S. totals.

Uncertainty in and Limitations of Emission Estimates

While the current U.S. emissions inventory provides a solid foundation for the development of a more detailed and comprehensive national inventory, it has several strengths and weaknesses.

First, this inventory by itself does not provide a complete picture of past or future emissions in the United States; it only provides an inventory of U.S. emissions for the years 1990 through 1997. However, the United States believes that common and consistent inventories taken over a period of time can and will contribute to understanding future emission trends. The United States produced its first comprehensive inventory of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks in 1993, and intends to update this inventory annually in conjunction with its commitments under the UNFCCC. The methodologies used to estimate emissions will be periodically updated as methods and information improve, and as further guidance is received from the IPCC.

Secondly, there are uncertainties associated with the emissions estimates. Some of the current estimates, such as those for CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities and cement processing, are considered to be fairly accurate. For other categories of emissions, however, a lack of data or an incomplete understanding of how emissions are generated limit the scope or accuracy of the estimates presented. Despite these uncertainties, the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) require that countries provide single point estimates for each gas and emission or removal source category. Within the discussion of each emission source, specific factors affecting the accuracy of the estimates are discussed.

Finally, while the IPCC methodologies provided in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* represent baseline methodologies for a variety of source categories, many of these methodologies continue to be improved and refined as new research and data becomes available. The current U.S. inventory uses the IPCC methodologies when applicable, and supplements them with other available methodologies and data where possible. The United States realizes that additional efforts are still needed to improve methodologies and data collection procedures. Specific areas requiring further research include:

Incorporating excluded emission sources. Quantitative estimates of some of the sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions are not available at this time. In particular, emissions from some land-use activities and in-

dustrial processes are not included in the inventory either because data are incomplete or because methodologies do not exist for estimating emissions from these source categories. See Annex P for a discussion of the sources of greenhouse gas emissions excluded from this report.

Improving the accuracy of emission factors. Further research is needed in some cases to improve the accuracy of emission factors used to calculate emissions from a variety of sources. For example, the accuracy of current emission factors applied to methane and nitrous oxide emissions from stationary and mobile source fossil fuel combustion are highly uncertain.

Collecting detailed activity data. Although methodologies exist for estimating emissions for some sources, problems arise in obtaining activity data at a level of detail in which aggregate emission factors can be applied. For example, the ability to estimate emissions of methane and nitrous oxide from jet aircraft is limited due to a lack of activity data by aircraft type and number of landing and take-off cycles.

Applying Global Warming Potentials. GWP values have several limitations including that they are not applicable to unevenly distributed gases and aerosols such as tropospheric ozone and its precursors. They are also intended to reflect global averages and, therefore, do not account for regional effects. Overall, the main uncertainties in developing GWP values are the estimation of atmospheric lifetimes, assessing indirect effects, choosing the appropriate integration time horizon, and assessing instantaneous radiative forcing effect which is dependent upon existing atmospheric concentrations. According to the IPCC, GWPs typically have an uncertainty of ± 35 percent (IPCC 1996). Additional discussion on the uncertainties related to the use of GWP weighting values can be found in Annex J.

Emissions calculated for the U.S. inventory reflect current best estimates; in some cases, however, estimates are based on approximate methodologies, assumptions, and incomplete data. As new information becomes available in the future, the United States will continue to improve and revise its emission estimates.

Organization of Report

In accordance with the IPCC guidelines for reporting contained in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), this U.S. inventory of greenhouse gas emissions is segregated into six sector-specific chapters, listed below in Table 1-9.

Within each chapter, emissions are identified by the anthropogenic activity that is the source of the greenhouse gas emissions being estimated (e.g., coal mining). Overall, the following organizational structure is consistently applied throughout this report:

Chapter/IPCC Sector: Overview of emission trends for each IPCC defined sector

Source: Description of source pathway and emission trends from 1990 through 1997

- **Methodology:** Description of analytical methods employed to produce emission estimates
- **Data Sources:** Identification of primary data references, primarily for activity data and emission factors
- **Uncertainty:** Discussion of relevant issues related to the uncertainty in the emission estimates presented

Special attention is given to carbon dioxide from fossil fuel combustion relative to other sources because of its share of emissions relative to other sources. For example, each energy consuming end-use is treated individually. Additional information for certain source categories and other topics is also provided in several Annexes listed in Table 1-10.

Table 1-9: IPCC Sector Descriptions

Chapter/IPCC Sector	Activities Included
Energy	Emissions of all greenhouse gases resulting from stationary and mobile energy activities including fuel combustion and fugitive fuel emissions.
Industrial Processes	By-product or fugitive emissions of greenhouse gases from industrial processes not directly related to energy activities such as fossil fuel combustion.
Solvent Use	Emissions, of primarily non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), resulting from the use of solvents.
Agriculture	Anthropogenic emissions from agricultural activities except fuel combustion and sewage emissions, which are addressed under Energy and Waste, respectively.
Land-Use Change and Forestry	Emissions and removals from forest and land-use change activities, primarily carbon dioxide.
Waste	Emissions from waste management activities.

Source: (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997)

Table 1-10: List of Annexes

ANNEX A	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	ANNEX H	Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Manure Management
ANNEX B	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and Criteria Pollutants from Stationary Sources	ANNEX I	Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Landfills
ANNEX C	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and Criteria Pollutants from Mobile Sources	ANNEX J	Global Warming Potential Values
ANNEX D	Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Coal Mining	ANNEX K	Ozone Depleting Substance Emissions
ANNEX E	Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Natural Gas Systems	ANNEX L	Sulfur Dioxide Emissions
ANNEX F	Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Petroleum Systems	ANNEX M	Complete List of Sources
ANNEX G	Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Enteric Fermentation	ANNEX N	IPCC Reporting Tables
		ANNEX O	IPCC Reference Approach for Estimating CO ₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion
		ANNEX P	Sources of Greenhouse Gas Emissions Excluded
		ANNEX Q	Constants, Units, and Conversions
		ANNEX R	Abbreviations
		ANNEX S	Chemical Symbols
		ANNEX T	Glossary

2. Energy

Energy-related activities were the primary source of U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions, accounting for 85 percent of total emissions annually on a carbon equivalent basis in 1997. This included 99, 32, and 20 percent of the nation's carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions, respectively. Energy-related CO₂ emissions alone constituted 81 percent of national emissions from all sources on a carbon equivalent basis, while the non-CO₂ emissions from energy represented a much smaller portion of total national emissions (4 percent collectively).

Emissions from fossil fuel combustion comprise the vast majority of energy-related emissions, with CO₂ being the primary gas emitted (see Figure 2-1). Due to the relative importance of fossil fuel combustion-related CO₂ emissions, they are considered separately from other emissions. Fossil fuel combustion also emits CH₄ and N₂O, as well as criteria pollutants such as nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). Fossil fuel combustion—from stationary and mobile sources—was the second largest source N₂O emissions in the United

States, and overall energy-related activities are the largest sources of criteria pollutant emissions.

Energy-related activities other than fuel combustion, such as the production, transmission, storage, and distribution of fossil fuels, also emit greenhouse gases. These emissions consist primarily of CH₄ from natural gas systems, petroleum systems, and coal mining. Smaller quantities of CO₂, CO, NMVOCs, and NO_x are also emitted.

The combustion of biomass and biomass-based fuels also emits greenhouse gases. Carbon dioxide emissions from these activities, however, are not included in national emissions totals in the Energy chapter because biomass fuels are of biogenic origin. It is assumed that the carbon released when biomass is consumed is recycled as U.S. forests and

crops regenerate, causing no net addition of CO₂ to be added to the atmosphere. The net impacts of land-use and forestry activities on the carbon cycle are accounted for in the Land-use change and Forestry chapter.

Overall, emissions from energy-related activities have increased from 1990 to 1997 due, in part, to the strong performance of the U.S. economy. Over this period, the U.S. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew approximately 18 percent, or at an average annual rate of 2.5 percent. This robust economic activity increased the demand for fossil fuels, with an associated increase in greenhouse gas emissions. Table 2-1 summarizes emissions for the Energy chapter in units of million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE), while unweighted gas emissions in teragrams (Tg) are provided in Table 2-2. Overall, emissions due to energy-related activities were 1,549.2 MMTCE in 1997, an increase of 10 percent since 1990.

Figure 2-1

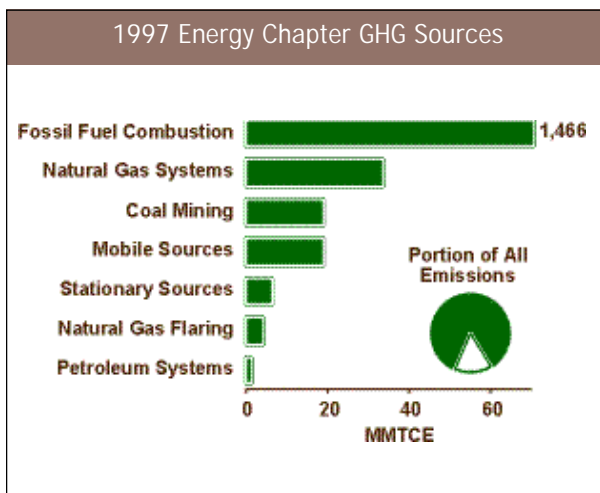


Table 2-1: Emissions from Energy (MMTCE)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	1,329.4	1,315.2	1,334.9	1,364.1	1,387.5	1,402.2	1,452.0	1,470.1
Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,327.2	1,312.6	1,332.4	1,360.6	1,383.9	1,397.8	1,447.7	1,466.0
Natural Gas Flaring	2.3	2.6	2.6	3.5	3.6	4.5	4.3	4.2
International Bunker Fuels*	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
Biomass-Ethanol*	1.6	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	1.4	1.8
Biomass-Wood*	55.6	56.2	59.0	58.8	59.7	59.7	62.4	57.2
Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored*	(68.9)	(68.5)	(70.3)	(73.2)	(78.1)	(79.1)	(80.7)	(83.6)
CH₄	62.2	61.4	61.3	58.6	58.2	58.9	58.1	57.4
Stationary Sources	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.2
Mobile Sources	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Coal Mining	24.0	22.8	22.0	19.2	19.4	20.3	18.9	18.8
Natural Gas Systems	32.9	33.3	33.9	34.1	33.5	33.2	33.7	33.5
Petroleum Systems	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6
International Bunker Fuels*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	17.4	18.0	19.0	19.9	20.7	20.9	21.6	21.7
Stationary Sources	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1
Mobile Sources	13.6	14.2	15.2	15.9	16.7	17.0	17.4	17.5
International Bunker Fuels*	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	1,409.0	1,394.6	1,415.2	1,442.6	1,466.3	1,482.1	1,531.6	1,549.2

* These values are presented for informational purposes only and are not included or are already accounted for in totals.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-2: Emissions from Energy (Tg)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	4,874.6	4,822.4	4,894.8	5,001.7	5,087.5	5,141.6	5,324.0	5,390.4
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,866.2	4,812.8	4,885.4	4,988.7	5,074.4	5,125.1	5,308.3	5,375.2
Natural Gas Flaring	8.4	9.6	9.4	13.0	13.1	16.4	15.7	15.2
Biomass-Ethanol*	5.7	4.5	5.5	6.1	6.7	7.2	5.1	6.7
Biomass-Wood*	203.8	205.9	216.5	215.4	219.0	219.1	228.8	209.8
International Bunker Fuels*	99.3	101.9	106.4	109.6	100.4	93.3	93.0	97.5
Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored*	(252.7)	(251.2)	(257.8)	(268.5)	(286.5)	(289.9)	(295.9)	(306.6)
CH₄	10.9	10.7	10.7	10.2	10.2	10.3	10.1	10.0
Stationary Sources	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Mobile Sources	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Coal Mining	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.3	3.3
Natural Gas Systems	5.7	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.8
Petroleum Systems	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
International Bunker Fuels*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Stationary Sources	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mobile Sources	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
International Bunker Fuels*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg
* These values are presented for informational purposes only and are not included or are already accounted for in totals.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion

In 1997, the majority of energy consumed in the United States, 85 percent, was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels such as coal, natural gas, and petroleum (see Figure 2-2 and Figure 2-3). Of the remaining, 7 percent was supplied by nuclear electric power and 8 percent by renewable energy technologies (EIA 1998a).

As fossil fuels are combusted, the carbon stored in the fuels is emitted as CO₂ and smaller amounts of other gases, including methane (CH₄), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). These other gases are emitted as a by-product of incomplete fuel combustion. The amount of carbon in fuels varies significantly by fuel type. For example, coal contains

the highest amount of carbon per unit of useful energy. Petroleum has roughly 75 percent of the carbon per unit of energy as coal, and natural gas has only about 55 percent.¹ Petroleum supplied the largest share of U.S. energy demands, accounting for an average of 39 percent of total energy consumption over the period of 1990 through 1997. Natural gas and coal followed in order of importance, accounting for an average of 24 and 22 percent of total consumption, respectively. Most petroleum was consumed in the transportation sector, while the vast majority of coal was used by electric utilities, with natural gas consumed largely in the industrial and residential sectors (see Figure 2-4)(EIA 1998a).

Emissions of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion increased at an average annual rate of 1.4 percent from 1990 to 1997. The major factor behind this trend was a robust domestic economy, combined with relatively low energy prices. For example, petroleum prices have changed little in real terms since the 1970s, with coal prices actually having declined by more than 60 percent in real terms compared to the 1975 price (EIA 1998a) (see Figure 2-5). After 1990, when CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were 1,327.2 MMTCE (4,866.2 Tg), there was a slight decline of emissions in 1991 due to a national economic downturn, followed by an increase to 1,466.0 MMTCE (5,375.2 Tg) in 1997 (see Figure 2-5: Fossil Fuel Production Prices and Table 2-3 and Table 2-4). Overall, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased by 10.5 percent over the eight year period and rose by 1.3 percent in the final year.

Figure 2-2

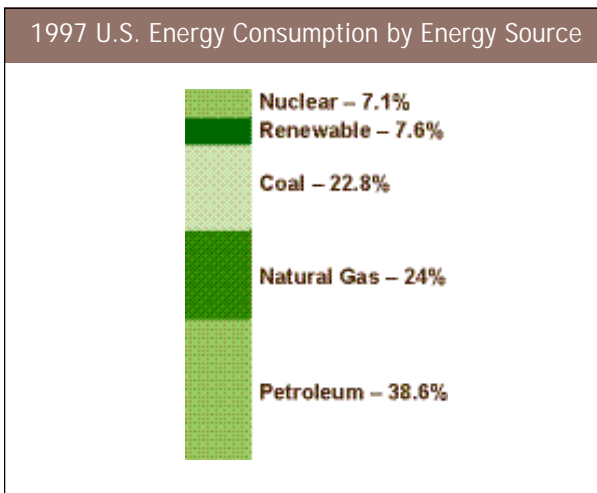


Figure 2-3

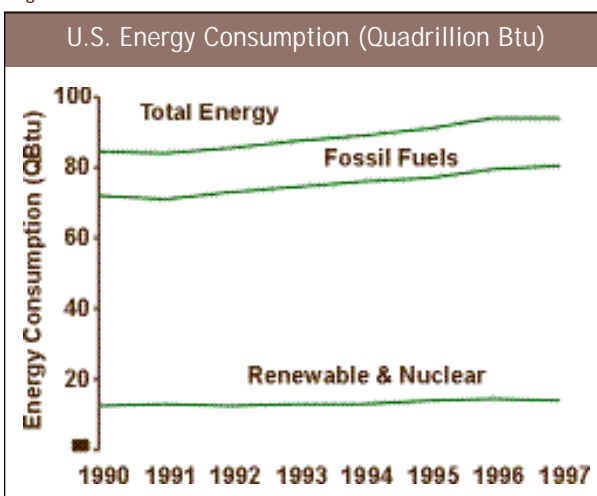
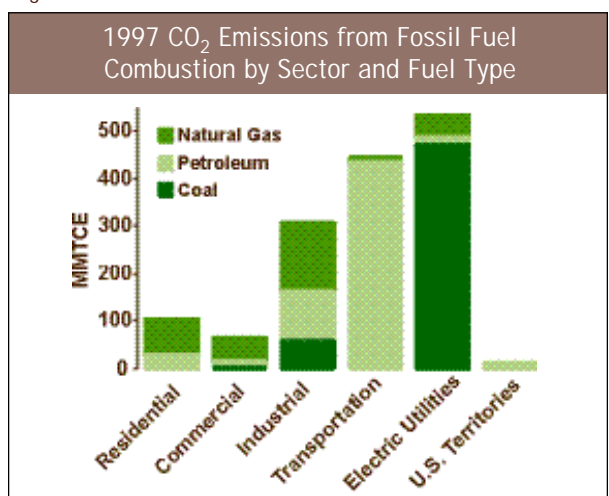
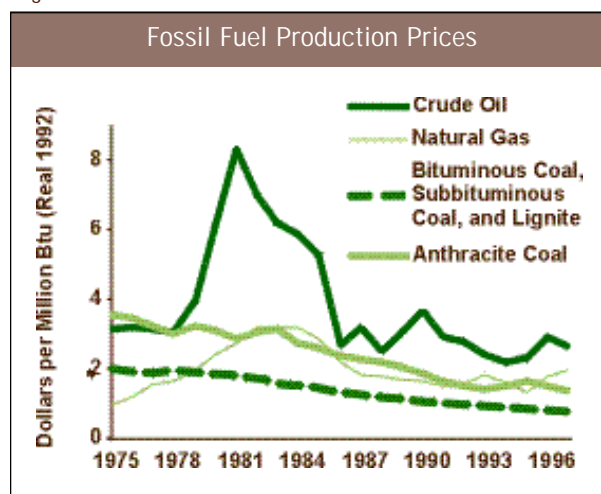


Figure 2-4



¹ Based on national aggregate carbon content of all coal, natural gas, and petroleum fuels combusted in the United States.

Figure 2-5

Table 2-3: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type and Sector (MMTCE)

Fuel/Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Coal	481.6	475.9	478.3	494.7	496.7	498.8	521.1	533.3
Residential	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Commercial	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1
Industrial	68.5	64.8	62.6	62.2	62.7	62.1	59.9	58.5
Transportation	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Electric Utilities	409.0	407.2	411.8	428.7	430.2	433.0	457.5	470.9
U.S. Territories	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Natural Gas	273.5	278.4	286.5	297.0	301.9	314.5	319.3	319.4
Residential	65.1	67.5	69.4	73.4	71.8	71.7	77.5	74.1
Commercial	38.8	40.4	41.5	43.1	42.9	44.8	46.7	48.6
Industrial	118.6	120.5	126.1	131.7	133.1	140.4	144.3	142.5
Transportation	9.8	8.9	8.8	9.3	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.5
Electric Utilities	41.2	41.1	40.7	39.5	44.0	47.2	40.3	43.8
U.S. Territories	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Petroleum	572.0	558.3	567.5	568.8	585.2	584.4	607.2	613.3
Residential	23.9	24.4	24.8	26.2	25.3	25.7	27.2	27.7
Commercial	18.0	17.1	16.1	14.9	14.9	15.0	14.6	14.4
Industrial	100.0	94.3	104.3	98.0	102.0	98.2	103.9	106.0
Transportation	394.5	387.0	392.9	396.9	411.2	419.7	434.1	435.3
Electric Utilities	26.6	25.1	19.9	22.5	20.6	14.0	15.4	17.6
U.S. Territories	8.9	10.4	9.5	10.3	11.1	11.8	12.0	12.4
Geothermal*	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	1,327.2	1,312.6	1,332.4	1,360.6	1,383.9	1,397.8	1,447.7	1,466.0

- Not applicable
+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
* Although not technically a fossil fuel, geothermal energy-related CO₂ emissions are included for reporting purposes.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-4: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type and Sector (Tg)

Fuel/Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Coal	1,765.9	1,744.8	1,753.8	1,814.0	1,821.3	1,828.9	1,910.9	1,955.3
Residential	5.8	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.2	5.2
Commercial	8.7	8.0	8.1	8.1	7.9	7.6	7.8	7.8
Industrial	251.0	237.6	229.5	228.0	229.9	227.7	219.5	214.6
Transportation	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Electric Utilities	1,499.7	1,493.2	1,510.0	1,571.7	1,577.4	1,587.5	1,677.4	1,726.7
U.S. Territories	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
Natural Gas	1,002.9	1,020.8	1,050.5	1,088.8	1,107.1	1,153.3	1,170.8	1,171.1
Residential	238.5	247.3	254.5	269.1	263.3	263.0	284.2	271.6
Commercial	142.4	148.2	152.3	158.2	157.4	164.3	171.2	178.1
Industrial	434.9	441.8	462.3	482.8	488.0	514.9	529.0	522.3
Transportation	36.0	32.8	32.1	33.9	37.2	38.1	38.7	38.6
Electric Utilities	151.1	150.6	149.3	144.9	161.2	173.0	147.7	160.5
U.S. Territories	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Petroleum	2,097.2	2,047.0	2,080.9	2,085.6	2,145.8	2,142.8	2,226.4	2,248.6
Residential	87.7	89.4	90.9	96.1	92.8	94.4	99.7	101.5
Commercial	66.1	62.6	59.1	54.7	54.7	54.9	53.6	52.7
Industrial	366.6	345.7	382.3	359.5	374.2	360.1	381.1	388.5
Transportation	1,446.4	1,419.2	1,440.7	1,455.2	1,507.9	1,538.9	1,591.8	1,595.9
Electric Utilities	97.6	91.9	73.1	82.5	75.6	51.3	56.5	64.6
U.S. Territories	32.7	38.2	34.8	37.7	40.6	43.2	43.9	45.3
Geothermal*	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	4,866.2	4,812.8	4,885.4	4,988.7	5,074.4	5,125.1	5,308.3	5,375.2

- Not applicable

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

* Although not technically a fossil fuel, geothermal energy-related CO₂ emissions are included for reporting purposes.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Since 1990, consumption of all fossil fuels increased, with about 37 percent of the change in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion coming from coal, 33 percent from natural gas, and 30 percent from petroleum. From 1996 to 1997, absolute emissions from coal grew the most (an increase of 12.1 MMTCE or 2.3 percent), while emissions from natural gas changed the least (an increase of 0.1 MMTCE or less than 0.1 percent). During the same time period, emissions from electric utility petroleum and natural gas combustion increased the most on a percentage basis by 14.4 and 8.7 percent, respectively. See Box 2-1 for additional discussion on overall emission trends.

In 1997, combustion of fossil fuels by electric utilities increased, in part, to offset the temporary shutdown of several nuclear power plants and two plant closings. As a result, in 1997 the U.S. coal industry produced the largest amount of coal ever and electric utilities consumed record quantities. Electric utilities increased consumption by 2.8 percent from 1996 levels. The aggregate consumption of coal in sectors other than electric utilities actually declined

by 2.6 percent (EIA 1998f) during this period. The net increase in coal consumption by all sectors was responsible for 66 percent of the total increase in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

Continued low prices encouraged the consumption of petroleum products in 1997, which increased by 1.3 percent from the previous year. This rise in petroleum use accounted for 33 percent of the increase in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

From 1996 to 1997, emissions from natural gas held steady. Consumption decreases in the industrial and residential sectors offset increases in the commercial and electric utility sectors.

Fossil fuels also have applications other than combustion for energy. For example, some petroleum products can be used for manufacturing plastics, asphalt, or lubricants. A portion of the carbon consumed for these non-energy uses is sequestered for long periods of time. In addition, as required by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) CO₂ emissions from the consumption of fossil fuels for aviation and marine international trans-

port activities (i.e., bunker fuels) are reported separately, and not included in national emission totals. Both estimates for non-energy use carbon stored and international bunker fuel emissions for the United States are provided in Table 2-5 and Table 2-6.

End-Use Sector Contributions

When analyzing CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, four end-use sectors can be identified: industrial, transportation, residential, and commercial. Electric utilities also emit CO₂; however, these emissions occur as they combust fossil fuels to provide electricity to one of the four end-use sectors. For the discussion below, electric utility emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector based upon their share of national electricity consumption. Emissions from electric utilities are addressed separately after the end-use sectors have been discussed. Emissions from U.S. territories are also calculated separately due to a lack of end-use-specific consumption data. Table 2-7 and Figure 2-6 summarize CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector.

Industrial End-Use Sector

The industrial end-use sector accounted for approximately one-third of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. On average, nearly 64 percent of these emissions resulted from the direct consumption of fossil fuels in order to meet industrial demand for steam and process heat. The remaining 36 percent resulted from

Figure 2-6

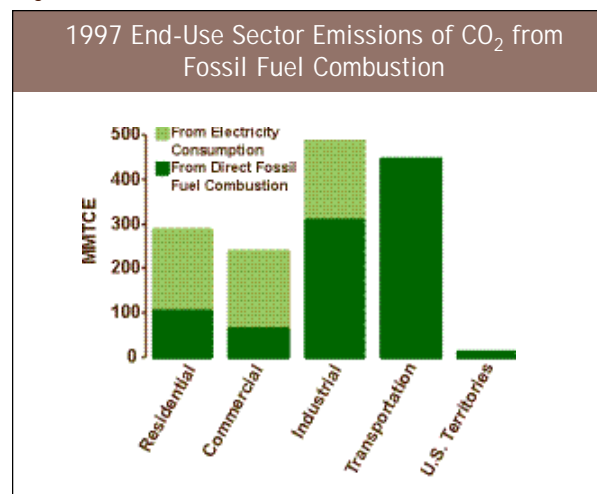


Table 2-5: Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored and CO₂ Emissions from International Bunker Fuel Combustion (MMTCE)

Category/Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored	68.9	68.5	70.3	73.2	78.1	79.1	80.7	83.6
Industrial	67.0	66.7	68.6	71.4	76.3	77.2	78.8	81.7
Transportation	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7
Territories	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
International Bunker Fuels*	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
Aviation*	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.2	11.6	12.4	12.8	13.9
Marine*	16.6	17.3	18.0	18.7	15.8	13.0	12.6	12.7

* Excludes military international bunkers fuels. See International Bunker Fuels for additional detail.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-6: Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored and CO₂ Emissions from International Bunker Fuel Combustion (Tg)

Category/Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored	252.7	251.2	257.8	268.5	286.5	289.9	295.9	306.6
Industrial	245.6	244.5	251.4	261.8	279.6	283.2	289.0	299.4
Transportation	6.5	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.0	6.4
Territories	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.9
International Bunker Fuels*	99.3	101.9	106.4	109.6	100.4	93.3	93.0	97.5
Aviation*	38.4	38.4	40.4	41.1	42.5	45.5	47.0	51.0
Marine*	60.8	63.5	66.0	68.5	57.9	47.8	46.0	46.6

* Excludes military international bunkers fuels. See International Bunker Fuels for additional detail.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-7: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by End-Use Sector (MMTCE)*

End-Use Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residential	253.0	257.1	255.7	271.6	268.6	269.8	285.4	286.1
Commercial	206.8	206.4	205.3	212.1	214.1	218.4	225.9	237.1
Industrial	453.3	441.8	459.3	459.5	467.8	466.8	478.8	483.7
Transportation	405.0	396.7	402.4	406.8	422.1	430.7	445.3	446.5
U.S. Territories	9.1	10.6	9.7	10.5	11.3	12.0	12.2	12.6
Total	1,327.2	1,312.6	1,332.4	1,360.6	1,383.9	1,397.8	1,447.7	1,466.0

* Emissions from fossil fuel combustion by electric utilities are allocated based on electricity consumption by each end-use sector.
 Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

the consumption of electricity for uses such as motors, electric furnaces, ovens, and lighting. Although industry accounted for the largest share of end-use sector emissions, from 1990 to 1997 its emissions grew the least in percentage terms (7 percent). During the same period, coal consumption by industry declined by 15 percent, while natural gas and petroleum consumption increased by 20 and 6 percent, respectively.

The industrial end-use sector was also the largest user of fossil fuels for non-energy applications. Fossil fuels can be used for producing products such as fertilizers, plastics, asphalt, or lubricants, that sequester or store carbon for long periods of time. Asphalt used in road construction, for example, stores carbon essentially indefinitely. Similarly, fossil fuels used in the manufacture of materials like plastics can also store carbon, if the material is not burned. Carbon stored by industrial non-energy uses of fossil fuels rose 22 percent between 1990 and 1997, to 81.7 MMTCE (306.6 Tg CO₂).

Transportation End-Use Sector

Transportation was second to the industrial end-use sector in terms of U.S. CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion emissions, accounting for slightly over 30 percent—excluding international bunker fuels. Almost all of the energy consumed in this end-use sector came from petroleum-based products, with nearly two-thirds due to gasoline consumption in automobiles and other highway vehicles. Other uses, including diesel fuel for the trucking industry and jet fuel for aircraft, accounted for the remainder.

Following the overall trend in U.S. energy consumption, fossil fuel combustion for transportation grew steadily after declining in 1991, resulting in a 10 per-

cent increase in CO₂ emissions to 446.5 MMTCE (1,637.1 Tg) in 1997. This increase was primarily the result of greater motor gasoline, distillate fuel oil (e.g., diesel), and jet fuel consumption. It was slightly offset by decreases in the consumption of aviation gasoline, LPG, lubricants, and residual fuel. Overall, motor vehicle fuel efficiency stabilized in the 1990s after increasing steadily since 1977 (EIA 1998a). This trend was due, in part, to a decline in gasoline prices and new motor vehicle sales being increasingly dominated by less fuel-efficient light-duty trucks and sport-utility vehicles (see Figure 2-7 and Figure 2-8). Moreover, declining petroleum prices during these years—with the exception of 1996—combined with a stronger economy, were largely responsible for an overall increase in vehicle miles traveled by on-road vehicles ().

Table 2-8 below provides a detailed breakdown of CO₂ emissions by fuel category and vehicle type for the transportation end-use sector. On average 60 percent of the emissions from this end-use sector were the result

Figure 2-7

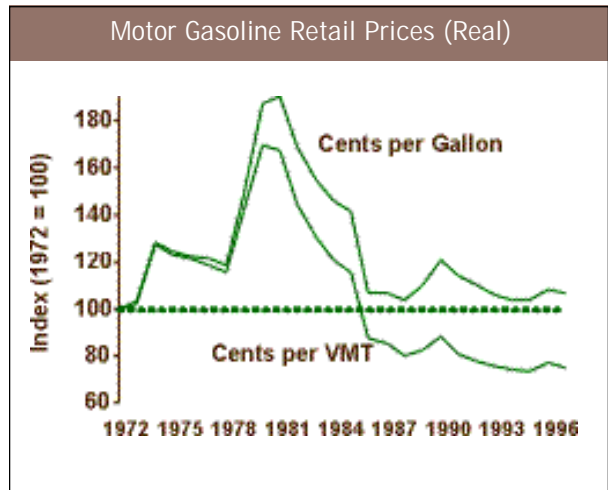
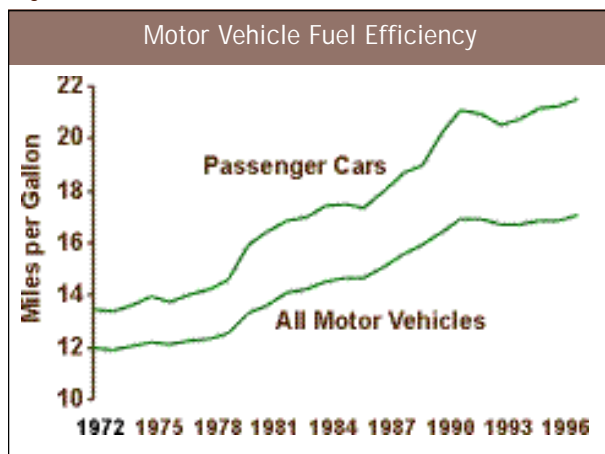


Figure 2-8



of the combustion of motor gasoline in passenger cars and light-duty trucks. Diesel highway vehicles and jet aircraft were also significant contributors, each accounting for, on average, 13 percent of CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector. It should be noted that the U.S. Department of Transportation's Federal Highway Administration altered its definition of light-duty trucks in 1995 to include sport-utility vehicles and minivans; previously these vehicles were included under the passenger cars category. As a consequence of this reclassification, a discontinuity exists in the time series in Table 2-8 for both passenger cars and light-duty trucks.² In future editions of this report a consistent classification scheme across the entire time series will be applied by incorporating adjustments in the allocation of fuel consumption for the period 1990 to 1995 to eliminate this discontinuity.

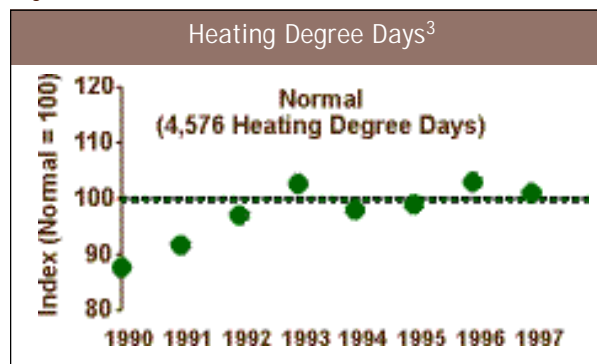
The annual increase in CO₂ emissions from motor gasoline in 1997 is based on fuel sales data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration; it is expected to be revised upward with the publication of future energy statistics. Carbon stored in lubricants used for transportation activities were 1.7 MMTCE (6.4 Tg) in 1997.

Residential and Commercial End-Use Sectors

From 1990 to 1997, the residential and commercial end-use sectors, on average, accounted for 19 and 16 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Both the residential and commercial end-use sec-

tors were heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with about two-thirds of their emissions attributable to electricity consumption for lighting, heating, cooling, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the direct consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Unlike in other major end-use sectors, emissions from residences did not decline in 1991, but instead decreased in 1992 and 1994, then grew steadily through 1997 (see Figure 2-9). This difference in overall trends compared to other end-use sectors is because energy consumption in residences is affected proportionately more by the weather than by prevailing economic conditions. The commercial end-use sector, however, is primarily dependent on electricity for lighting and is affected more by the number of commercial consumers. Coal consumption was a small component of energy use in both the residential and commercial sectors.

Figure 2-9



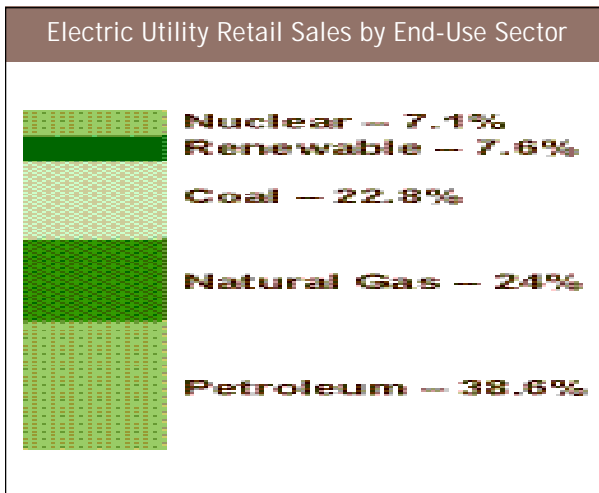
Electric Utilities

The United States relied on electricity to meet a significant portion of its energy requirements. Electricity was consumed primarily in the residential, commercial, and industrial end-use sectors for uses such as lighting, heating, electric motors, and air conditioning (see Figure 2-10). To generate this electricity, utilities consumed 28 percent of national fossil fuels on an energy content basis and were collectively the largest producers of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, accounting for 36 percent in 1997. Electric utilities were responsible for a larger share of these CO₂ emissions

² See Box 1-2 in the Introduction chapter for a discussion on emissions of all greenhouse gases from transportation related activities.

³ Degree days are relative measurements of outdoor air temperature. Heating degree days are deviations of the mean daily temperature below 65° F. Excludes Alaska and Hawaii. Normals are based on data from 1961 through 1990.

Figure 2-10



mainly because they rely on more carbon intensive coal for a majority of their primary energy. Some of the electricity consumed in the United States was generated using low or zero CO₂ emitting technologies such as hydroelectric or nuclear energy; however, in 1997 the combustion of coal was the source of 57 percent of the electricity consumed in the United States (EIA 1998b).

Electric utilities were the dominant consumer of coal in the United States, accounting for 87 percent in 1997. Consequently, changes in electricity demand have a significant impact on coal consumption and associated CO₂ emissions. In fact, electric utilities consumed record amounts of coal (922 million short tons) in 1997. Overall, emissions from coal burned at electric utilities increased by 15 percent from 1990 to 1997. This increase in coal-related emissions from electric utilities was alone responsible for 45 percent of the overall rise in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

In addition to the increase in consumption of coal by electric utilities, consumption of both natural gas and petroleum rose by 9 and 14 percent in 1997, respectively (EIA 1998e). Electric utility natural gas use increased significantly in 1994 and 1995, as prices and supply stabilized following a series of cold winters and a period of industry restructuring. However, in 1996 gas prices paid by electric utilities increased by a dramatic 33 percent (EIA 1997a), making gas-based electricity generation less economical. Consequently, natural gas consumption by electric utilities declined by 15 percent in 1996. The rebound in 1997 regained half of the previous year's decline. This increased gas consumption occurred mostly in California, where hydroelectric and nuclear generation each fell by 10 percent, and in New York, where nuclear generation fell by 16 percent. Over the 1990 to 1997 period, emissions from natural gas burned at electric utilities rose by 6 percent. Fuel oil was the most expensive fossil fuel delivered to electric utilities in 1997, 62 percent more costly than natural gas on an energy content basis. Consequently, petroleum constituted a small portion of electric utility fossil fuel consumption (4 percent in 1997) and occurred mostly in the eastern United States.

In 1997, consumption of all fossil fuels for producing electricity increased to accommodate the temporary shut-down of several nuclear power plants across the country and two plant closings. Total nuclear power plants electricity generation fell off by 7 percent accounting for 1.5 percent of total national generation (45.3 billion kilowatt hours) (EIA 1998b).

Box 2-1: Sectoral Carbon Intensity Trends Related to Fossil Fuel and Overall Energy Consumption

Fossil fuels are the predominant source of energy in the United States, and carbon dioxide (CO₂) is emitted as a product from their complete combustion. Useful energy, however, can be generated from many other sources that do not emit CO₂ in the energy conversion process.⁴ In the United States, useful energy is also produced from renewable (i.e., hydropower, biofuels, geothermal, solar, and wind) and nuclear sources.

Energy-related CO₂ emissions can be reduced by not only reducing total energy consumption (e.g., through conservation measures) but also by lowering the carbon intensity of the energy sources employed (i.e., fuel switching from coal to natural gas). The amount of carbon emitted—in the form of CO₂—from the combustion of fossil fuels is dependent upon the carbon content of the fuel and the fraction of that carbon that is oxidized. Fossil fuels vary in their carbon content, ranging from 13.7 MMTCE/EJ for natural gas to 26.4 MMTCE/EJ for coal and petroleum coke.⁵ In general, the carbon intensity of fossil fuels is the highest for coal products, followed by petroleum and then natural gas. Other sources of energy, however, may be directly or indirectly carbon neutral (i.e., 0 MMTCE/EJ). Energy generated from nuclear and many renewable sources do not result in direct emissions of CO₂. Biofuels such as wood and ethanol are also considered to be carbon neutral, as the CO₂ emitted during combustion is assumed to be offset by the carbon sequestered in the growth of new biomass.⁶ The overall carbon intensity of the U.S. economy is then dependent upon the combination of fuels and other energy sources employed to meet demand.

Table 2-9 provides a time series of the carbon intensity for each sector of the U.S. economy. The time series incorporates only the energy consumed from the direct combustion of fossil fuels in each sector. For example, the carbon intensity for the residential sector does not include the energy from or emissions related to the consumption of electricity for lighting or wood for heat. Looking only at this direct consumption of fossil fuels, the residential sector exhibited the lowest carbon intensity, which was related to the large percentage of energy derived from natural gas for heating. The carbon intensity of the commercial sector was greater than the residential sector for the period from 1990 to 1996, but then declined to an equivalent level as commercial businesses shifted away from petroleum to natural gas. The industrial sector was more dependent on petroleum and coal than either the residential or commercial sectors, and thus had a higher carbon intensity over this period. The carbon intensity of the transportation sector was closely related to the carbon content of petroleum products (e.g., motor gasoline and jet fuel), which were the primary sources of energy. Lastly, the electric utility sector had the highest carbon intensity due to its heavy reliance on coal for generating electricity.

Table 2-9: Carbon Intensity from Direct Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector (MMTCE/EJ)

Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residential ^a	14.7	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.7
Commercial ^a	15.2	15.1	15.0	14.9	14.9	14.8	14.8	14.7
Industrial ^a	16.6	16.5	16.5	16.4	16.4	16.3	16.3	16.3
Transportation ^a	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1
Electric Utilities ^b	22.4	22.4	22.4	22.5	22.4	22.4	22.6	22.6
All Sectors^c	18.6	18.6	18.6	18.6	18.6	18.5	18.5	18.6

^a Does not include electricity or renewable energy consumption.

^b Does not include electricity produced using nuclear or renewable energy.

^c Does not include nuclear or renewable energy consumption.

Note: Excludes non-energy fuel use emissions and consumption. Exajoule (EJ) = 10¹⁸ joules = 0.9479 QBtu.

⁴ CO₂ emissions, however, may be generated from upstream activities (e.g., manufacture of the technologies).

⁵ One exajoule (EJ) is equal to 10¹⁸ joules or 0.9478 QBtu.

⁶ This statement assumes that there is no net loss of biomass-based carbon due to biofuel consumption.

In contrast to Table 2-9, Table 2-10 presents carbon intensity values that incorporate energy consumed from all sources (i.e., fossil fuels, renewables, and nuclear). In addition, the emissions related to the generation of electricity have been attributed to both electric utilities and the sector in which that electricity was eventually consumed.⁷ This table, therefore, provides a more complete picture of the actual carbon intensity of each sector per unit of energy consumed. Both the residential and commercial sectors obtain a large portion of their energy from electricity. The residential sector, however, also uses significant quantities of biofuels such as wood, thereby lowering its carbon intensity. The industrial sector uses biofuels in even greater quantities than the residential sector. The carbon intensity of electric utilities differs greatly from the scenario in Table 2-9 where only the energy consumed from the direct combustion of fossil fuels was included. This difference is due almost entirely to the inclusion of electricity generation from nuclear and hydropower sources, which do not emit carbon dioxide. Also in contrast with the previous scenario in Table 2-9, the transportation sector in Table 2-10 emerges as the most carbon intensive when all sources of energy are included, due to its almost complete reliance on petroleum products and relatively minor amount of biomass based fuels such as ethanol.

Table 2-10: Carbon Intensity from Energy Consumption by Sector (MMTCE/EJ)

Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residential ^a	14.5	14.3	14.4	14.5	14.5	14.2	14.3	14.7
Commercial ^a	15.2	15.0	15.1	15.2	15.1	14.8	14.9	15.1
Industrial ^a	14.8	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.4	14.4	14.5
Transportation ^a	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.0	18.0	18.0	18.0	18.0
Electric Utilities ^b	15.3	15.0	15.2	15.3	15.2	14.8	15.0	15.3
All Sectors^c	15.8	15.6	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.5	15.5	15.7

^a Includes electricity (from fossil fuel, nuclear, and renewable sources) and direct renewable energy consumption.

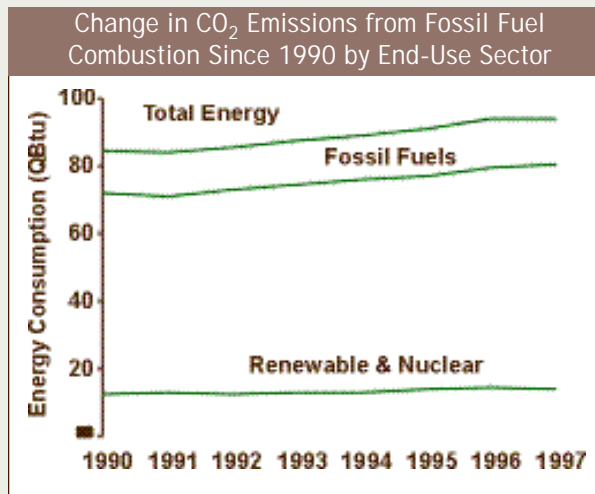
^b Includes electricity generation from nuclear and renewable sources.

^c Includes nuclear and renewable energy consumption.

Note: Excludes non-energy fuel use emissions and consumption. Assumed that residential consumed all of the biofuel-based energy and 50 percent of the solar energy in the combined EIA residential/commercial sector category. Exajoule (EJ) = 10¹⁸ joules = 0.9479 QBtu.

By comparing the values in Table 2-9 and Table 2-10, there are a couple of observations that can be made. The usage of renewable and nuclear energy sources have resulted in a significantly lower carbon intensity of the U.S. economy, especially for the industrial and electric utility sectors. However, over the eight year period of 1990 through 1997, the carbon intensity of U.S. fossil fuel consumption has been fairly constant, and changes in the usage of renewable and nuclear energy technologies have not altered this trend. Figure 2-11 and Table 2-11 present the detailed CO₂ emission trends underlying the carbon intensity differences and changes described in Table 2-9. In Figure 2-11 changes in both overall end-use-related emissions and electricity-related emissions for each year since 1990 are highlighted. In Table 2-11 values are normalized in the year 1990 to one-hundred (100), thereby highlighting changes over time.

Figure 2-11



⁷ In other words, the emissions from the generation of electricity are intentionally double counted by attributing them both to utilities and the sector in which electricity consumption occurred.

Table 2-11: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion (Index 1990 = 100)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	% of '97
Residential	100	103	106	112	109	109	117	114	7.0%
Coal	100	91	92	92	90	87	89	89	0.1%
Natural Gas	100	104	107	113	110	110	119	114	5.1%
Petroleum	100	102	104	110	106	108	114	116	1.9%
Commercial	100	101	101	102	101	104	107	110	4.4%
Coal	100	91	93	92	90	87	89	89	0.1%
Natural Gas	100	104	107	111	110	115	120	125	3.3%
Petroleum	100	95	89	83	83	83	81	80	1.0%
Industrial	100	97	102	102	104	105	107	107	20.9%
Coal	100	95	91	91	92	91	87	85	4.0%
Natural Gas	100	102	106	111	112	118	122	120	9.7%
Petroleum	100	94	104	98	102	98	104	106	7.2%
Transportation	100	98	99	100	104	106	110	110	30.4%
Coal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Natural Gas	100	91	89	94	103	106	108	107	0.7%
Petroleum	100	98	100	101	104	106	110	110	29.7%
Electric Utility	100	99	99	103	104	104	108	112	36.3%
Coal	100	100	101	105	105	106	112	115	32.1%
Natural Gas	100	100	99	96	107	115	98	106	3.0%
Petroleum	100	94	75	84	77	53	58	66	1.2%
U.S. Territories	100	117	107	116	125	132	135	139	0.9%
Coal	100	110	126	137	146	148	152	152	0.0%
Natural Gas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Petroleum	100	117	106	115	124	132	134	139	0.8%
All Sectors	100	99	100	103	104	105	109	110	100.0%

- Not applicable

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The methodology used by the United States for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion is conceptually similar to the approach recommended by the IPCC for countries that intend to develop detailed, sectoral-based emission estimates (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). A detailed description of the U.S. methodology is presented in Annex A, and is characterized by the following steps:

1. *Determine fuel consumption by fuel type and sector.* By aggregating consumption data by sector (e.g., commercial, industrial, etc.), primary fuel type (e.g., coal, petroleum, gas), and secondary fuel category (e.g., motor gasoline, distillate fuel oil, etc.), estimates of total U.S. fossil fuel consumption for a particular year were made.⁸ The United States does not include territories in its national energy statistics; therefore, fuel consumption data for territories was collected separately.

2. *Determine the total carbon content of fuels consumed.* Total carbon was estimated by multiplying the amount of fuel consumed by the amount of carbon in each fuel. This total carbon estimate defines the maximum amount of carbon that could potentially be released to the atmosphere if all of the carbon were converted to CO₂. The carbon content coefficients used by the United States are presented in Annex A.

3. *Subtract the amount of carbon stored in products.* Non-fuel uses of fossil fuels can result in storage of some or all of the carbon contained in the fuel for some period of time, depending on the end-use. For example, asphalt made from petroleum can sequester up to 100 percent of the carbon for extended periods of time, while other products, such as lubricants or plastics, lose or emit some carbon when they are used and/or burned as waste. Aggregate U.S. energy statistics include consumption of fossil fuels for non-energy uses; therefore,

⁸ Fuel consumption by U.S. territories (i.e. American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in this report and contributed 12.6 MMTCE of emissions in 1997.

the portion of carbon sequestered through these uses was subtracted from potential carbon emission estimates. The amount of carbon sequestered or stored in non-energy uses of fossil fuels was based on the best available data on the end-uses and ultimate fate of the various energy products. These non-energy uses occurred in the industrial and transportation sectors and U.S. territories.

4. *Adjust for carbon that does not oxidize during combustion.* Because combustion processes are not 100 percent efficient, some of the carbon contained in fuels is not emitted to the atmosphere. Rather, it remains behind as soot, ash, or other by-products of inefficient combustion. The estimated amount of carbon not oxidized due to inefficiencies during the combustion process was assumed to be 1 percent for petroleum and coal and 0.5 percent for natural gas (see Annex A).

5. *Subtract emissions from international bunker fuels.* According to the IPCC guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) emissions from international transport activities, or bunker fuels, should not be included in national totals. Because U.S. energy consumption statistics include these bunker fuels—distillate fuel oil, residual fuel oil, and jet fuel—as part of consumption by the transportation sector, emissions from international transport activities were calculated separately and subtracted from emissions from the transportation sector. The calculations for emissions from bunker fuels follows the same procedures used for emissions from consumption of all fossil fuels (i.e., estimation of consumption, determination of carbon content, and adjustment for the fraction of carbon not oxidized).

6. *Allocate transportation emissions by vehicle type.* Because the transportation end-use sector was the largest direct consumer of fossil fuels in the United States,⁹ a more detailed accounting of carbon dioxide emissions is provided. Fuel consumption data by vehicle type and transportation mode were used to allocate emissions by fuel type calculated for the transportation end-use sector. Specific data by vehicle type were not available for 1997; therefore, the 1996 percentage allocations

were applied to 1997 fuel consumption data in order to estimate emissions in 1997. Military vehicle jet fuel consumption was assumed to account for the difference between total U.S. jet fuel consumption (as reported by DOE/EIA) and civilian air carrier consumption for both domestic and international flights (as reported by DOT/BTS and BEA).

Data Sources

Data on fuel consumption for the United States and its territories, carbon content of fuels, and percent of carbon sequestered in non-energy uses were obtained directly from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) of the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE). Fuel consumption data were obtained primarily from the *Monthly Energy Review* (EIA 1998e) and various EIA databases. U.S. marine bunker fuel consumption data for distillate and residual fuel oil was taken from *Fuel Oil and Kerosene Sales* (EIA 1998c). Marine bunker fuel consumption in U.S. territories was collected from internal EIA databases used to prepare the *International Energy Annual* (EIA 1998d). Jet fuel consumption for aviation international bunkers was taken from *Fuel Cost and Consumption*, which are monthly data releases by the Department of Transportation's Bureau of Transportation Statistics (DOT/BTS 1998), and unpublished data from the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA 1998). The data collected by DOT/BTS includes fuel consumed for international commercial flights both originating and terminating in the United States. One-half of this value was assumed to have been purchased in the United States.¹⁰

IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) provided combustion efficiency rates for petroleum and natural gas. Bechtel (1993) provided the combustion efficiency rates for coal. Vehicle type fuel consumption data for the allocation of transportation sector emissions were primarily taken from the *Transportation Energy Databook* prepared by the Center for Transportation Analysis at Oak Ridge National Laboratory (DOE 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998). All jet fuel and aviation gasoline were assumed to have been consumed in aircraft.

⁹ Electric utilities are not considered a final end-use sector, because they consume energy solely to provide electricity to the other sectors.

¹⁰ See section titled International Bunker Fuels for a more detailed discussion.

Carbon intensity estimates were developed using nuclear and renewable energy data from EIA (1998a) and fossil fuel consumption data as discussed above and presented in Annex A.

For consistency of reporting, the IPCC has recommended that national inventories report energy data (and emissions from energy) using the International Energy Agency (IEA) reporting convention and/or IEA data. Data in the IEA format are presented “top down”—that is, energy consumption for fuel types and categories are estimated from energy production data (accounting for imports, exports, stock changes, and losses). The resulting quantities are referred to as “apparent consumption.” The data collected in the United States by EIA, and used in this inventory, are, instead, “bottom up” in nature. In other words, they are collected through surveys at the point of delivery or use and aggregated to determine national totals.

Uncertainty

For estimates of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, the amount of CO₂ emitted, in principle is directly related to the amount of fuel consumed, the fraction of the fuel that is oxidized, and the carbon content of the fuel. Therefore, a careful accounting of fossil fuel consumption by fuel type, average carbon contents of fossil fuels consumed, and consumption of products with long-term carbon storage should yield an accurate estimate of CO₂ emissions.

There are uncertainties, however, concerning the consumption data sources, carbon content of fuels and products, and combustion efficiencies. For example, given the same primary fuel type (e.g., coal), the amount of carbon contained in the fuel per unit of useful energy can vary. Non-energy uses of the fuel can also create situations where the carbon is not emitted to the atmosphere (e.g., plastics, asphalt, etc.) or is emitted at a delayed rate. The proportions of fuels used in these non-fuel production processes that result in the sequestration of carbon have been assumed. Additionally, inefficiencies in the combustion process, which can result in ash or soot remaining unoxidized for long periods, were also assumed. These factors all contribute to the uncertainty in the CO₂ estimates.

Other sources of uncertainty are fuel consumption by U.S. territories and bunker fuels consumed by the military. The United States does not collect as detailed energy statistics for its territories as for the fifty states and the District of Columbia. Therefore both estimating emissions and bunker fuel consumption by these territories is difficult. It is also difficult to determine the geographic boundaries of where military bunker fuels are consumed. The U.S. Department of Defense currently does not collect energy consumption data sufficiently detailed to estimate military bunker fuel emissions.

For the United States, however, these uncertainties are believed to be relatively small. U.S. CO₂ emission estimates from fossil fuel combustion are considered accurate within one or two percent. See, for example, Marland and Pippin (1990).

Stationary Sources (excluding CO₂)

Stationary sources encompass all fuel combustion activities except those related to transportation activities (i.e., mobile combustion). Other than carbon dioxide (CO₂), which was addressed in the previous section, gases from stationary combustion include the greenhouse gases methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) and the criteria pollutants nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). Emissions of these gases from stationary sources depend upon fuel characteristics, technology type, usage of pollution control equipment, and ambient environmental conditions. Emissions also vary with the size and vintage of the combustion technology as well as maintenance and operational practices.

Nitrous oxide and NO_x emissions from stationary combustion are closely related to air-fuel mixes and combustion temperatures, as well as the characteristics of any pollution control equipment that is employed. Carbon monoxide emissions from stationary combustion are generally a function of the efficiency of combustion and the use of emission controls; they are highest when less oxygen is present in the air-fuel mixture than is necessary for complete combustion. These conditions are most

likely to occur during start-up and shut-down and during fuel switching (e.g., the switching of coal grades at a coal-burning electric utility plant). Methane and NMVOC emissions from stationary combustion are believed to be a function of the CH₄ content of the fuel and post-combustion controls.

Emissions of CH₄ increased slightly from 1990 to 1996, but fell below the 1990 level in 1997 to 2.2 MMTCE (391 Gg). This decrease in emissions was primarily due to lower wood consumption in the residential and commercial sectors. Nitrous oxide emissions rose 8 percent since 1990 to 4.1 MMTCE (49 Gg) in 1997. The largest source of N₂O emissions was coal combustion by electric utilities, which alone accounted for 53 percent of total N₂O emissions from stationary combustion in 1997. Overall, though, stationary combustion is a small source of CH₄ and N₂O in the United States.

In general, stationary combustion was a significant source of NO_x and CO emissions, and a smaller source of NMVOCs. In 1997, emissions of NO_x from stationary combustion represented 46 percent of national NO_x emissions, while CO and NMVOC emissions from stationary combustion contributed approximately 6 and 5 percent, respectively, to the national totals for the same year. From 1990 to 1997, emissions of NO_x were fairly constant, while emissions of CO and NMVOCs decreased by 13 and 14 percent, respectively.

The decrease in CO and NMVOC emissions from 1990 to 1997 can largely be attributed to decreased residential and commercial wood consumption, which is the most significant source of these pollutants in the Energy sector. Overall, NO_x emissions from energy varied due to fluctuations in emissions from electric utilities. Table 2-12, Table 2-13, Table 2-14, and Table 2-15 provide CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from stationary sources by sector and fuel type. Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC emissions in 1997 are given in Table 2-16.¹¹

Methodology

Methane and nitrous oxide emissions were estimated by multiplying emission factors (by sector and fuel type) by fossil fuel and wood consumption data.

Methane and nitrous oxide emission estimates for stationary combustion activities were grouped into four sectors—industrial, commercial/institutional, residential, and electric utilities—and were based on national coal, natural gas, fuel oil, and wood consumption data.

For NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs, the major source categories included in this section are those used in EPA (1998): coal, fuel oil, natural gas, wood, other fuels (including LPG, coke, coke oven gas, and others), and stationary internal combustion. The EPA estimates emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs by sector and fuel source using a “bottom-up” estimating procedure. In other words, emissions were calculated either for individual sources (e.g., industrial boilers) or for multiple sources combined, using basic activity data as indicators of emissions. Depending on the source category, these basic activity data may include fuel consumption, fuel deliveries, tons of refuse burned, raw material processed, etc.

The EPA derived the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program (NAPAP) emissions inventory, and other EPA databases. The U.S. approach for estimating emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from stationary source combustion, as described above, is similar to the methodology recommended by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

More detailed information on the methodology for calculating emissions from stationary sources including emission factors and activity data is provided in Annex B.

Data Sources

Emissions estimates for NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs in this section were taken directly from the EPA’s *Draft National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends: 1900 - 1997* (EPA 1998). U.S. energy data were provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration’s *Annual Energy Review* (EIA 1998a) and *Monthly Energy Review* (EIA 1998b). Emission factors were provided by *the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

¹¹ See Annex B for a complete time series of criteria pollutant emission estimates for 1990 through 1997.

Table 2-12: CH₄ Emissions from Stationary Sources (MMTCE)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Fuel Oil	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Natural gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Industrial	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Coal	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural gas	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Wood	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Commercial/Institutional	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Natural gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Residential	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.1
Coal	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.8
Total	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
NA (Not Available)
* Commercial/institutional emissions from the combustion of wood are included under the residential sector.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-13: N₂O Emissions from Stationary Sources (MMTCE)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3
Coal	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	+	0.1	+	+	+	+
Natural gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Industrial	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Coal	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Fuel Oil	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5
Natural gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Commercial/Institutional	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Natural gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Residential	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	3.81	3.78	3.85	3.93	3.97	3.96	4.13	4.13

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
NA (Not Available)
* Commercial/institutional emissions from the combustion of wood are included under the residential sector.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-14: CH₄ Emissions from Stationary Sources (Gg)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	23	23	22	23	23	23	23	24
Coal	16	16	16	17	17	17	18	19
Fuel Oil	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	2
Natural gas	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Wood	1	1	1	1	1	+	1	1
Industrial	140	138	143	146	149	149	154	151
Coal	27	26	25	25	25	24	24	23
Fuel Oil	17	16	17	17	18	17	18	19
Natural gas	40	41	43	45	46	48	49	49
Wood	55	55	58	59	61	59	63	61
Commercial/Institutional	23	23	23	23	23	23	24	24
Coal	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Fuel Oil	9	9	8	8	8	8	7	7
Natural gas	13	13	14	14	14	15	15	16
Wood*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Residential	218	227	237	224	220	236	240	191
Coal	19	17	17	17	17	16	17	17
Fuel Oil	13	13	13	14	13	14	14	15
Natural Gas	21	22	23	24	24	24	26	24
Wood	166	175	184	169	166	183	183	135
Total	404	410	425	415	414	431	441	391

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg
NA (Not Available)
* Commercial/institutional emissions from the combustion of wood are included under the residential sector.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-15: N₂O Emissions from Stationary Sources (Gg)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	24	24	24	25	25	25	26	27
Coal	23	22	23	24	24	24	25	26
Fuel Oil	1	1	1	1	1	+	+	+
Natural gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Industrial	17	17	17	17	18	18	18	18
Coal	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
Fuel Oil	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	6
Natural gas	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Wood	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8
Commercial/Institutional	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	1	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Natural gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Residential	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Natural Gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	+
Wood	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	45	45	46	46	47	47	49	49

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg
NA (Not Available)
* Commercial/institutional emissions from the combustion of wood are included under the residential sector.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-16: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Stationary Sources in 1997 (Gg)

Sector/Fuel Type	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	Sector/Fuel Type	NO _x	CO	NMVOC
Electric Utilities	5,605	368	46	Commercial/Institutional	379	235	22
Coal	5,079	230	26	Coal	36	14	1
Fuel Oil	120	11	3	Fuel Oil	97	17	3
Natural gas	262	71	7	Natural gas	219	51	10
Wood	NA	NA	NA	Wood	NA	NA	NA
Internal Combustion	144	56	9	Other Fuels ^a	27	152	8
Industrial	2,967	1,007	197	Residential	779	2,759	515
Coal	557	91	5	Coal ^b	NA	NA	NA
Fuel Oil	218	66	11	Fuel Oil ^b	NA	NA	NA
Natural gas	1,256	329	70	Natural Gas ^b	NA	NA	NA
Wood	NA	NA	NA	Wood	31	2,520	478
Other Fuels ^a	118	288	48	Other Fuels ^a	748	239	37
Internal Combustion	818	233	62	Total	9,729	4,369	780

NA (Not Available)
^a "Other Fuels" include LPG, waste oil, coke oven gas, coke, and non-residential wood (EPA 1998).
^b Coal, fuel oil, and natural gas emissions are included in the "Other Fuels" category (EPA 1998).
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. See Annex B for emissions in 1990 through 1996.

Uncertainty

Methane emission estimates from stationary sources are highly uncertain, primarily due to difficulties in calculating emissions from wood combustion (i.e., fireplaces and wood stoves). The estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions presented are based on broad indicators of emissions (i.e., fuel use multiplied by an aggregate emission factor for different sectors), rather than specific emission processes (i.e., by combustion technology and type of emission control). The uncertainties associated with the emission estimates of these gases are greater than with estimates of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which are mainly a function of the carbon content of the fuel combusted. Uncertainties in both CH₄ and N₂O estimates are due to the fact that emissions are estimated based on emission factors representing only a limited subset of combustion conditions. For the criteria pollutants, uncertainties are partly due to assumptions concerning combustion technology types, age of equipment, emission factors used, and projections of growth.

Mobile Sources (excluding CO₂)

Mobile sources emit greenhouse gases other than CO₂, including methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and the criteria pollutants carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs).

As with combustion in stationary sources, N₂O and NO_x emissions are closely related to fuel characteristics, air-fuel mixes, and combustion temperatures, as well as usage of pollution control equipment. Nitrous oxide, in particular, can be formed by the catalytic processes used to control NO_x and CO emissions. Carbon monoxide emissions from mobile source combustion are significantly affected by combustion efficiency and presence of post-combustion emission controls. Carbon monoxide emissions are highest when air-fuel mixtures have less oxygen than required for complete combustion. This occurs especially in idle, low speed and cold start conditions. Methane and NMVOC emissions from motor vehicles are a function of the CH₄ content of the motor fuel, the amount of hydrocarbons passing uncombusted through the engine, and any post-combustion control of hydrocarbon emissions, such as catalytic converters.

Emissions from mobile sources were estimated by transport mode (e.g., highway, air, rail, and water) and fuel type—motor gasoline, diesel fuel, jet fuel, aviation gas, natural gas, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), and residual fuel oil—and vehicle type. Road transport accounted for the majority of mobile source fuel consumption, and hence, the majority of mobile source emissions. Table 2-17 through Table 2-20 provide CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from mobile sources by vehicle type, fuel type, and transport mode. Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC emissions in 1997 are given in Table 2-21.¹²

¹² See Annex C for a complete time series of criteria pollutant emission estimates for 1990 through 1997.

Table 2-17: CH₄ Emissions from Mobile Sources (MMTCE)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Passenger Cars	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Light-Duty Trucks	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Motorcycles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Diesel Highway	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Non-Highway	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ships and Boats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Locomotives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Farm Equipment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Construction Equipment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Aircraft	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.
* "Other" includes snowmobiles, small gasoline powered utility equipment, heavy-duty gasoline powered utility equipment, and heavy-duty diesel powered utility equipment.

Table 2-18: N₂O Emissions from Mobile Sources (MMTCE)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	12.3	12.9	13.8	14.6	15.3	15.6	16.0	16.1
Passenger Cars	8.6	9.0	9.7	10.1	9.9	10.1	8.9	9.0
Light-Duty Trucks	3.4	3.7	3.9	4.2	5.1	5.2	6.8	6.7
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Motorcycles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Diesel Highway	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Non-Highway	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Ships and Boats	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Locomotives	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Farm Equipment	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Construction Equipment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Aircraft	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Other*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	13.6	14.2	15.2	15.9	16.7	17.0	17.4	17.5

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.
* "Other" includes snowmobiles, small gasoline powered utility equipment, heavy-duty gasoline powered utility equipment, and heavy-duty diesel powered utility equipment.

Table 2-19: CH₄ Emissions from Mobile Sources (Gg)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	220	214	211	209	211	209	212	210
Passenger Cars	133	128	127	123	115	114	98	100
Light-Duty Trucks	67	66	65	66	75	74	94	91
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	16	16	15	16	17	17	16	16
Motorcycles	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Diesel Highway	10	10	10	11	11	11	12	12
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	10	10	10	10	11	11	11	11
Non-Highway	22	21	21	21	21	22	22	20
Ships and Boats	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
Locomotives	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	2
Farm Equipment	6	5	6	5	6	6	6	6
Construction Equipment	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Aircraft	8	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
Other*	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	252	245	243	241	244	242	246	242

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.
* "Other" includes snowmobiles, small gasoline powered utility equipment, heavy-duty gasoline powered utility equipment, and heavy-duty diesel powered utility equipment.

Table 2-20: N₂O Emissions from Mobile Sources (Gg)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	145	153	164	173	181	184	189	191
Passenger Cars	102	107	115	120	117	119	105	107
Light-Duty Trucks	41	44	46	50	60	61	80	80
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4
Motorcycles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Diesel Highway	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7
Non-Highway	10	9	10	9	10	10	10	9
Ships and Boats	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Locomotives	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Farm Equipment	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Construction Equipment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Aircraft	6	6	5	5	6	6	6	6
Other*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	161	169	179	188	197	201	206	207

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.
* "Other" includes snowmobiles, small gasoline powered utility equipment, heavy-duty gasoline powered utility equipment, and heavy-duty diesel powered utility equipment.

Table 2-21: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Mobile Sources in 1997 (Gg)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	NO _x	CO	NMVOCs	Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	NO _x	CO	NMVOCs
Gasoline Highway	4,629	44,225	4,528	Non-Highway	4,137	15,201	2,205
Passenger Cars	2,597	24,356	2,467	Ships and Boats	273	1,704	468
Light-Duty Trucks	1,725	16,659	1,785	Locomotives	861	105	45
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	296	3,039	243	Farm Equipment	962	298	116
Motorcycles	11	171	33	Construction Equipment	1,120	1,080	219
Diesel Highway	1,753	1,368	217	Aircraft ^a	161	918	170
Passenger Cars	31	27	11	Other ^b	759	11,096	1,186
Light-Duty Trucks	11	10	5	Total	10,519	60,794	6,949
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	1,711	1,332	201				

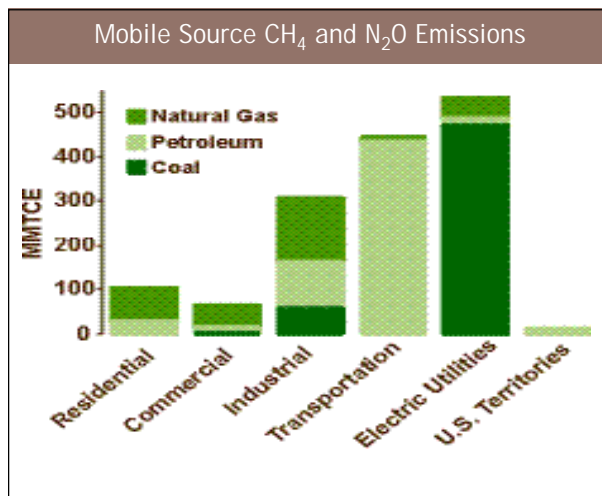
^a Aircraft estimates include only emissions related to LTO cycles, and therefore do not include cruise altitude emissions.

^b "Other" includes gasoline powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light commercial, logging, airport service, other equipment; and diesel powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light construction, airport service.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. See Annex C for emissions in 1990 through 1996.

Mobile sources were responsible for a small portion of national CH₄ emissions but were the second largest source of N₂O in the United States. From 1990 to 1997, CH₄ emissions declined by 4 percent, to 1.4 MMTCE (242 Gg). Nitrous oxide emissions, however, rose 29 percent to 17.5 MMTCE (207 Gg) (see Figure 2-12). The reason for this conflicting trend was that the control technologies employed on highway vehicles in the United States lowered CO, NO_x, NMVOC, and CH₄ emissions, but resulted in higher average N₂O emission rates. Fortunately, since 1994 improvements in the emission control technologies installed on new vehicles have reduced emission rates of both NO_x and N₂O per vehicle mile traveled. Overall, CH₄ and N₂O emissions were dominated by gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks.

Figure 2-12



Emissions of criteria pollutants generally increased from 1990 through 1994, after which there were decreases of 4 (NO_x) to 14 (CO) percent by 1997. A drop in gasoline prices combined with a strengthening U.S. economy caused the initial increase. These factors pushed the vehicle miles traveled (VMT) by road sources up, resulting in increased fuel consumption and higher emissions. Some of this increased activity was later offset by an increasing portion of the U.S. vehicle fleet meeting established emissions standards.

Fossil-fueled motor vehicles comprise the single largest source of CO emissions in the United States and are a significant contributor to NO_x and NMVOC emissions. In 1997, CO emissions from mobile sources contributed 81 percent of total CO emissions and 49 and 41 percent of NO_x and NMVOC emissions, respectively. Since 1990, emissions of CO and NMVOCs from mobile sources decreased by 8 and 13 percent, respectively, while emissions of NO_x increased by 3 percent.

Methodology

Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O emissions from mobile combustion were calculated by multiplying emission factors by measures of activity for each category. Depending upon the category, activity data included such information as fuel consumption, fuel deliveries, and vehicle miles traveled (VMT). Emission estimates from highway vehicles were based on VMT and emission factors by vehicle type, fuel type, model year, and control

technology. Fuel consumption data was employed as a measure of activity for non-highway vehicles and then fuel-specific emission factors were applied.¹³ A complete discussion of the methodology used to estimate emissions from mobile sources is provided in Annex C.

The EPA (1998a) provided emissions estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs for eight categories of highway vehicles¹⁴, aircraft, and seven categories of off-highway vehicles¹⁵.

Data Sources

Emission factors used in the calculations of CH₄ and N₂O emissions are presented in Annex C. The *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) provided emission factors for CH₄, and were developed using MOBILE5a, a model used by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to estimate exhaust and running loss emissions from highway vehicles. The MOBILE5a model uses information on ambient temperature, vehicle speeds, national vehicle registration distributions, gasoline volatility, and other variables in order to produce these factors (EPA 1997).

Emission factors for N₂O from gasoline highway vehicles came from a recent EPA report (1998b). This report developed emission factors for older passenger cars (roughly pre-1992 in California and pre-1994 in the rest of the United States), from published references, and for newer cars from a recent testing program at EPA's National Vehicle and Fuel Emissions Laboratory (NVFEL). These emission factors for gasoline highway vehicles are lower than the U.S. default values in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, but are higher than the European default values, both of which were published before the more recent tests and literature review conducted by the NVFEL. The U.S. default values in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* were based on three studies that tested a total of five cars using European rather than U.S. test protocols. More details may be found in EPA (1998b).

Emission factors for gasoline vehicles other than passenger cars were scaled from those for passenger cars with the same control technology, based on their relative fuel economy. This scaling was supported by limited data showing that light-duty trucks emit more N₂O than passenger cars with equivalent control technology. The use of fuel-consumption ratios to determine emission factors is considered a temporary measure only, to be replaced as soon as additional testing data are available. For more details, see EPA (1998b). Nitrous oxide emission factors for diesel highway vehicles were taken from the European default values found in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). There is little data addressing N₂O emissions from U.S. diesel-fueled vehicles, and in general, European countries have had more experience with diesel-fueled vehicles. U.S. default values in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* were used for non-highway vehicles.

Activity data were gathered from several U.S. government sources including EIA (1998a), EIA (1998b), FHWA (1998), BEA (1998), DOC (1998) FAA (1998), and DOT/BTS (1998). Control technology data for highway vehicles were obtained from the EPA's Office of Mobile Sources. Annual VMT data for 1990 through 1997 were obtained from the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) Highway Performance Monitoring System database, as noted in EPA (1998a).

Emissions estimates for NO_x, CO, NMVOCs were taken directly from the EPA's *National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends, 1900 - 1997* (EPA 1998a).

Uncertainty

Mobile source emission estimates can vary significantly due to assumptions concerning fuel type and composition, technology type, average speeds, type of emission control equipment, equipment age, and operating and maintenance practices. Fortunately, detailed activity data for mobile sources were available, includ-

¹³ The consumption of international bunker fuels is not included in these activity data, but are estimated separately under the International Bunker Fuels source category.

¹⁴ These categories included: gasoline passenger cars, diesel passenger cars, light-duty gasoline trucks less than 6,000 pounds in weight, light-duty gasoline trucks between 6,000 and 8,500 pounds in weight, light-duty diesel trucks, heavy-duty gasoline trucks and buses, heavy-duty diesel trucks and buses, and motorcycles.

¹⁵ These categories included: gasoline and diesel farm tractors, other gasoline and diesel farm machinery, gasoline and diesel construction equipment, snowmobiles, small gasoline utility engines, and heavy-duty gasoline and diesel general utility engines.

ing VMT by vehicle type for highway vehicles. The allocation of this VMT to individual model years was done using the profile of U.S. vehicle usage by vehicle age in 1990 as specified in MOBILE 5a. Data to develop a temporally variable profile of vehicle usage by model year instead of age was not available.

Average emission factors were developed based on numerous assumptions concerning the age and model of vehicle; percent driving in cold start, warm start, and cruise conditions; average driving speed; ambient temperature; and maintenance practices. The factors for regulated emissions from mobile sources—CO, NO_x, and hydrocarbons—have been extensively researched, and thus involve lower uncertainty than emissions of unregulated gases. Although methane has not been singled out for regulation in the United States, overall hydrocarbon emissions from mobile sources—a component of which is methane—are regulated.

Compared to methane, CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs, there is relatively little data available to estimate emission factors for nitrous oxide. Nitrous oxide is not a criteria pollutant, and measurements of it in automobile exhaust have not been routinely collected. Research data has shown that N₂O emissions from vehicles with catalytic converters are greater than those without emission controls, and that vehicles with aged catalysts emit more than new ones. The emission factors used were, therefore, derived from aged cars (EPA 1998b). The emission factors used for Tier 0 and older cars were based on tests of 28 vehicles; those for newer vehicles were based on tests of 22 vehicles. This sample is small considering that it is being used to characterize the entire U.S. fleet, and the associated uncertainty is therefore large. Currently, N₂O gasoline highway emission factors for vehicles other than passenger cars are scaled based on those for passenger cars and their relative fuel economy. Actual measurements should be substituted for this procedure when they become available. Further testing is needed to reduce the uncertainty in emission factors for all classes of vehicles, using realistic driving regimes, environmental conditions, and fuels.

Although aggregate jet fuel and aviation gasoline consumption data has been used to estimate emissions from aircraft, the recommended method for estimating

emissions in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* is to use data by specific aircraft type (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The IPCC also recommends that cruise altitude emissions be estimated separately using fuel consumption data, while landing and take-off (LTO) cycle data be used to estimate near-ground level emissions. The EPA is attempting to develop revised estimates based on this more detailed activity data, and these estimates are to be presented in future inventories.

U.S. jet fuel and aviation gasoline consumption is currently all attributed to the transportation sector by EIA, and it is assumed here that it is all used to fuel aircraft. However it is likely that some fuel purchased by airlines is not necessarily be used in aircraft, but instead used to power auxiliary power units, in ground equipment, and to test engines. Some jet fuel may also be used for other purposes such as blending with diesel fuel or heating oil.

Overall, uncertainty for N₂O emissions estimates is considerably higher than for CH₄, CO, NO_x, or NMVOC; however, all these gases involve far more uncertainty than CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

Lastly, in EPA (1998), U.S. aircraft emission estimates for CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs are based upon landing and take-off (LTO) cycles and consequently only capture near ground-level emissions, which are more relevant for air quality evaluations. These estimates also include both domestic and international flights. Therefore, estimates presented here overestimate IPCC-defined domestic CO, NO_x, and NMVOC emissions by including LTO cycles by aircraft on international flights but underestimate because they do not include emissions from aircraft on domestic flight segments at cruising altitudes.

Coal Mining

All underground and surface coal mining liberates (i.e., releases) methane as part of normal operations. The amount of methane liberated during mining is primarily dependent upon the amount of methane stored in the coal and the surrounding strata. This *in situ* methane content is a function of the quantity of methane generated during the coal formation process and its ability to migrate through the surrounding strata over time. The

degree of coalification—defined by the rank or quality of the coal formed—determines the amount of methane generated during the coal formation process; higher ranked coals generate more methane. The amount of methane that remains in the coal and surrounding strata also depends upon geologic characteristics such as pressure within a coal seam. Deeper coal deposits tend to retain more of the methane generated during coalification. Accordingly, deep underground coal seams generally have higher methane contents than shallow coal seams or surface deposits.

Underground, versus surface, coal mines contribute the largest share of methane emissions. All underground coal mines employ ventilation systems to ensure that methane levels remain within safe concentrations. These systems can exhaust significant amounts of methane to the atmosphere in low concentrations. Additionally, over twenty gassy U.S. coal mines supplement ventilation systems with degasification systems. Degasification systems are wells drilled from the surface or boreholes drilled inside the mine that remove large volumes of methane before or after mining. In 1997, 14 coal mines collected methane from degasification systems and sold this gas to a pipeline, thus reducing emissions to the atmosphere. Surface coal

mines also release methane as the overburden is removed and the coal is exposed. Additionally, after coal has been mined, small amounts of methane retained in the coal are released during processing, storage, and transport.

Total methane emissions in 1997 were estimated to be 18.8 MMTCE (3.3 Tg), declining 22 percent since 1990 (see Table 2-22 and Table 2-23). Of this amount, underground mines accounted for 65 percent, surface mines accounted for 14 percent, and post-mining emissions accounted for 21 percent. With the exception of 1995, total methane emissions declined every year during this period. In 1993, emissions from underground mining dropped to a low of 2.8 Tg, primarily due to labor strikes at many of the large underground mines. In 1995, there was an increase in methane emissions from underground mining due to particularly high emissions at the gassiest coal mine in the country. Overall, with the exception of 1995, total methane emitted from underground mines declined in each year because of increased gas recovery and use. Surface mine emissions and post-mining emissions remained relatively constant from 1990 to 1997.

In 1994, EPA's Coalbed Methane Outreach Program (CMOP) began working with the coal industry and

Table 2-22: CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (MMTCE)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Underground Mining	17.1	16.4	15.6	13.3	13.1	14.2	12.6	12.3
Liberated	18.8	18.1	17.8	16.0	16.3	17.7	16.5	16.8
Recovered & Used	(1.6)	(1.7)	(2.1)	(2.7)	(3.2)	(3.4)	(3.8)	(4.6)
Surface Mining	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.6
Post-Mining (Underground)	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5
Post-Mining (Surface)	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	24.0	22.8	22.0	19.2	19.4	20.3	18.9	18.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-23: CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Tg)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Underground Mining	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.2	2.1
Liberated	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.8	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.9
Recovered & Used	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.8)
Surface Mining	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5
Post-Mining (Underground)	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Post-Mining (Surface)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.3	3.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

other stakeholders to identify and remove obstacles to investments in coal mine methane recovery and use projects. Reductions attributed to CMOP were estimated to be 0.7, 0.8, 1.0, and 1.3 MMTCE in 1994, 1995, 1996 and 1997, respectively.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating methane emissions from coal mining consists of two main steps. The first step involved estimating methane emissions from underground mines. Because of the availability of ventilation system measurements, underground mine emissions can be estimated on a mine-by-mine basis and then summed to determine total emissions. The second step involved estimating emissions from surface mines and post-mining activities by multiplying basin-specific coal production by basin-specific emissions factors.

Underground mines. Total methane emitted from underground mines was estimated as the quantity of methane liberated from ventilation systems, plus methane liberated from degasification systems, minus methane recovered and used. The Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA) measures methane emissions from ventilation systems for all mines with detectable¹⁶ methane concentrations. These mine-by-mine measurements were used to estimate methane emissions from ventilation systems.

Some of the gassier underground mines also use degasification systems (e.g., wells or boreholes) that remove methane before or after mining. This methane can then be collected for use or vented to the atmosphere. Various approaches were employed to estimate the quantity of methane collected by each of the more than twenty mines using these systems, depending on available data. For example, some mines have reported to EPA the amounts of methane liberated from their degasification systems. For mines that sell recovered methane to a pipeline, pipeline sales data was used to estimate degasification emissions. Finally, for those mines for which no other data was available, default recovery ef-

iciency values were developed, depending on the type of degasification system employed.

Finally, the amount of methane recovered by degasification systems and then used (i.e., not vented) was estimated. This calculation was complicated by the fact that methane is rarely recovered and used during the same year in which the particular coal seam is mined. In 1997, 14 active coal mines sold recovered methane to a pipeline operator. Emissions avoided for these projects were estimated using gas sales data reported by various state agencies, and information supplied by coal mine operators regarding the number of years in advance of mining that gas recovery occurred. Additionally, some of the state agencies provided individual well production information, which was used to assign gas sales to a particular year.

Surface Mines and Post-Mining Emissions. Surface mining and post-mining methane emissions were estimated by multiplying basin-specific coal production by basin-specific emissions factors. For surface mining, emissions factors were developed by assuming that surface mines emit from one to three times as much methane as the average *in situ* methane content of the coal. This accounts for methane released from the strata surrounding the coal seam. For this analysis, it is assumed that twice the average *in-situ* methane content is emitted. For post-mining emissions, the emission factor was assumed to be from 25 to 40 percent of the average *in situ* methane content of coals mined in the basin. For this analysis, it is assumed that 32.5 percent of the average *in-situ* methane content is emitted.

Data Sources

The Mine Safety and Health Administration provided mine-specific information on methane liberated from ventilation systems at underground mines. EPA developed estimates of methane liberated from degasification systems at underground mines based on available data for each of the mines employing these systems. The primary sources of data for estimating

¹⁶ MSHA records coal mine methane readings with concentrations of greater than 50 ppm (parts per million) methane. Readings below this threshold are considered non-detectable.

emissions avoided at underground mines were gas sales data published by state petroleum and natural gas agencies, information supplied by mine operators regarding the number of years in advance of mining that gas recovery occurred, and reports of gas used on-site. Annual coal production data was taken from the Energy Information Agency's *Coal Industry Annual* (see Table 2-24) (EIA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998). Data on *in situ* methane content and emissions factors were taken from EPA (1993).

Table 2-24: Coal Production
(Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Underground	Surface	Total
1990	384,247	546,814	931,061
1991	368,633	532,653	901,285
1992	368,625	534,286	902,911
1993	318,476	539,211	857,687
1994	362,063	575,525	937,588
1995	359,475	577,634	937,109
1996	371,813	593,311	965,125
1997	381,620	607,163	988,783

Uncertainty

The emission estimates from underground ventilation systems were based upon actual measurement data for mines with detectable methane emissions. Accordingly, the uncertainty associated with these measurements is estimated to be low. Estimates of methane liberated from degasification systems are less certain because EPA assigns default recovery efficiencies for a subset of U.S. mines. Compared to underground mines, there is considerably more uncertainty associated with surface mining and post-mining emissions because of the difficulty in developing accurate emissions factors from field measurements. Because underground emissions comprise the majority of total coal mining emissions, the overall uncertainty is estimated to be only ± 15 percent.¹⁷ Currently, the estimate does not include emissions from abandoned coal mines because of limited data. The EPA is conducting research on the feasibility of including an estimate in future years.

Natural Gas Systems

Methane emissions from natural gas systems are generally process related, with normal operations, routine maintenance, and system upsets being the primary contributors. Emissions from normal operations include: natural gas combusting engine and turbine exhaust, bleed and discharge emissions from pneumatic devices, and fugitive emissions from system components. Routine maintenance emissions originate from pipelines, equipment, and wells during repair and maintenance activities. Pressure surge relief systems and accidents can lead to system upset emissions.

The U.S. natural gas system encompasses hundreds of thousands of wells, hundreds of processing facilities, hundreds of thousands of miles of transmission pipelines, and over a million miles of distribution pipeline. The system, though, can be divided into four stages, each with different factors affecting methane emissions, as follows:

Field Production. In this initial stage, wells are used to withdraw raw gas from underground formations. Emissions arise from the wells themselves, treatment facilities, gathering pipelines, and process units such as dehydrators and separators. Fugitive emissions and emissions from pneumatic devices accounted for the majority of emissions. Emissions from field production have increased absolutely and as a proportion of total emissions from natural gas systems—approximately 27 percent between 1990 and 1996—due to an increased number of producing gas wells and related equipment, and then leveled off in 1997 at 9.5 MMTCE.

Processing. In this stage, processing plants remove various constituents from the raw gas before it is injected into the transmission system. Fugitive emissions from compressors, including compressor seals, were the primary contributor from this stage. Processing plants accounted for about 12 percent of methane emissions from natural gas systems during the period of 1990 through 1997.

¹⁷ Preliminary estimate

Transmission and Storage. Natural gas transmission involves high pressure, large diameter pipelines that transport gas long distances from field production areas to distribution centers or large volume customers. From 1990 to 1997, total natural gas transmission pipeline mileage varied, with an overall decline from about 280,000 miles to about 260,000 miles. Throughout the transmission system, compressor stations pressurize the gas to move it through the pipeline. Fugitive emissions from compressor stations and metering and regulating stations accounted for the majority of the emissions from transmission. Pneumatic devices and engine exhaust were smaller sources of emissions from transmission facilities. Methane emissions from the transmission stage accounted for approximately 35 percent of the emissions from natural gas systems.

Natural gas is also injected and stored in underground formations during periods of low demand, and withdrawn, processed, and distributed during periods of high demand. Compressors and dehydrators were the primary contributors from these storage facilities. Less than one percent of total emissions from natural gas systems can be attributed to these facilities.

Distribution. The distribution of natural gas requires the use of low-pressure pipelines to deliver gas to customers. The distribution network consisted of nearly 1.4 mil-

lion miles of pipeline in 1996, increasing from a 1990 figure of just over 1.3 million miles (AGA 1996). Distribution system emissions, which accounted for approximately 27 percent of emissions from natural gas systems, resulted mainly from fugitive emissions from gate stations and non-plastic piping. An increased use of plastic piping, which has lower emissions than other pipe materials, has reduced the growth in emissions from this stage.

Overall, natural gas systems emitted 33.5 MMTCE (5.9 Tg) of methane in 1997 (see Table 2-25 and Table 2-26). Emissions rose slightly from 1990 to 1997, reflecting an increase in the number of producing gas wells and miles of distribution pipeline. Initiated in 1993, EPA's Natural Gas STAR program is working with the gas industry to promote profitable practices that reduce methane emissions. The program is estimated to have reduced emissions by 0.7, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.6 MMTCE in 1994, 1995, 1996, and 1997, respectively.

Methodology

The foundation for the estimate of methane emissions from the U.S. natural gas industry is a detailed study by the Gas Research Institute and EPA (GRI/EPA 1995). The GRI/EPA study developed over 100 detailed emission factors and activity levels through site visits to selected gas facilities, and arrived at a national point

Table 2-25: CH₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (MMTCE)

Stage	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Field Production	8.0	8.2	8.5	8.7	8.8	9.1	9.5	9.5
Processing	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.1
Transmission and Storage	12.6	12.7	12.9	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.7
Distribution	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.8	8.7	8.7	9.1	8.9
Total	32.9	33.3	33.9	34.1	33.5	33.2	33.7	33.5

Note: 1994 through 1997 totals include reductions from Natural Gas STAR program. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-26: CH₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Tg)

Stage	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Field Production	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7
Processing	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Transmission and Storage	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Distribution	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5
Total	5.7	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.9

Note: 1994 through 1997 totals include reductions from Natural Gas STAR program. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

estimate for 1992. Since publication of this study, EPA conducted additional analysis to update the activity data for some of the components of the system, particularly field production equipment. Summing emissions across individual sources in the natural gas system provided a 1992 baseline emission estimate from which the emissions for the period 1990 through 1997 were derived.

Apart from the year 1992, detailed statistics on each of the over 100 activity levels were not available for the time series 1990 through 1997. To estimate these activity levels, aggregate annual statistics were obtained on the main driving variables, including: number of producing wells, number of gas plants, miles of transmission pipeline, miles of distribution pipeline, and miles of distribution services. By assuming that the relationships among these variables remained constant (e.g., the number of heaters per well remained the same), the statistics on these variables formed the basis for estimating other activity levels.

For the period 1990 through 1995, the emission factors were held constant. A gradual improvement in technology and practices is expected to reduce the emission factors slightly over time. To reflect this trend, the emission factors were reduced by about 0.2 percent per year starting with 1996, a rate that, if continued, would lower the emission factors by 5 percent in 2020. See Annex E for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate methane emissions from natural gas systems.

Data Sources

Activity data were taken from the American Gas Association (AGA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997), the Energy Information Administration's *Annual Energy Outlook* (EIA 1997a), *Natural Gas Annual* (EIA 1997b), and *Natural Gas Monthly* (EIA 1998), and the Independent Petroleum Association of America (IPAA 1997). The U.S. Department of Interior (DOI 1997, 1998) supplied offshore platform data. All emission factors were taken from GRI/EPA (1995).

Uncertainty

The heterogeneous nature of the natural gas industry makes it difficult to sample facilities that are completely representative of the entire industry. Because of this, scaling up from model facilities introduces a degree of uncertainty. Additionally, highly variable emission rates were measured among many system components, making the calculated average emission rates uncertain. Despite the difficulties associated with estimating emissions from this source, the uncertainty in the total estimated emissions are believed to be on the order of ± 40 percent.

Petroleum Systems

One of the gases emitted from the production and refining of petroleum products is methane. The activities that lead to methane emissions include: production field treatment and separation, routine maintenance of production field equipment, crude oil storage, refinery processes, crude oil tanker loading and unloading, and venting and flaring. Each stage is described below:

Production Field Operations. Fugitive emissions from oil wells and related production field treatment and separation equipment are the primary source of emissions from production fields. From 1990 to 1997, these emissions accounted for about 10 percent of total emissions from petroleum systems. Routine maintenance, which includes the repair and maintenance of valves, piping, and other equipment, accounted for less than 1 percent of total emissions from petroleum systems. Emissions from production fields are expected to decline in the future as the number of oil wells decreases.

Crude Oil Storage. Crude oil storage tanks emit methane during two processes. "Breathing losses" from roof seals and joints occur when the tank is in use, and while tanks are being drained or filled. "Working losses" occur as the methane in the air space above the liquid is displaced. Piping and other equipment at storage facilities can also produce fugitive emissions. Between 1990 and 1997, crude oil storage emissions accounted for less than 1 percent of total emissions from petroleum systems.

Refining. Waste gas streams from refineries are a source of methane emissions. Based on Tilkicioglu and Winters (1989), who extrapolated waste gas stream emissions to national refinery capacity, emissions estimates from this source accounted for approximately 3 percent of total methane emissions from the production and refining of petroleum.

Tanker Operations. The loading and unloading of crude oil tankers releases methane. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from crude oil transportation on tankers accounted for roughly 2 percent of total emissions from petroleum systems.

Venting and Flaring. Gas produced during oil production that cannot be contained or otherwise used is released into the atmosphere or flared. Vented gas typically has a high methane content; however, it is assumed that flaring destroys the majority of the methane in the gas (about 98 percent depending upon the moisture content of the gas). Venting and flaring may account for up to 85 percent of emissions from petroleum systems. There is considerable uncertainty in the estimate of emissions from this activity.

In 1997 methane emissions from petroleum systems were 1.6 MMTCE (271 Gg) and have remained essentially constant since 1990. Emission estimates are provided below in Table 2-27 and Table 2-28.

Methodology

The methodology used for estimating emissions from each stage is described below:

Production Field Operations. Emission estimates were calculated by multiplying emission factors (i.e., emissions per oil well) with their corresponding activity data (i.e., number of oil wells). To estimate emissions for 1990 to 1997, emission factors developed to estimate 1990 emissions were multiplied by updated activity data for 1990 through 1997. Emissions estimates from petroleum systems excluded associated natural gas wells to prevent double counting with the estimates for Natural Gas Systems.

Crude Oil Storage. Tilkicioglu and Winters (1989) estimated crude oil storage emissions on a model tank farm facility with fixed and floating roof tanks. Emission factors developed for the model facility were applied to published crude oil storage data to estimate emissions.

Table 2-27: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (MMTCE)

Stage	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Production Field Operations	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Crude Oil Storage	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Refining	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Tanker Operations	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Venting and Flaring	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Total	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-28: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Gg)

Stage	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Production Field Operations	24	25	24	24	24	23	23	23
Crude Oil Storage	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Refining	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9
Tanker Operations	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5
Venting and Flaring	231	231	231	231	231	231	231	231
Total	272	273	272	272	272	271	271	271

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Refining. Tilkicioglu and Winters (1989) also estimated methane emissions from waste gas streams based on measurements at ten refineries. These data were extrapolated to total U.S. refinery capacity to estimate emissions from refinery waste gas streams for 1990. To estimate emissions for 1991 through 1997, the emissions estimates for 1990 were scaled using updated data on U.S. refinery capacity.

Tanker Operations. Methane emissions from tanker operations are associated with the loading and unloading of domestically-produced crude oil transported by tanker, and the unloading of foreign-produced crude transported by tanker. The quantity of domestic crude transported by tanker was estimated as Alaskan crude oil production less Alaskan refinery crude utilization, plus 10 percent of non-Alaskan crude oil production. Crude oil imports by tanker were estimated as total imports less imports from Canada. An emission factor based on the methane content of hydrocarbon vapors emitted from crude oil was employed (Tilkicioglu and Winters 1989). This emission factor was multiplied by updated activity data to estimate total emissions for 1990 through 1997.

Venting and Flaring. Although venting and flaring data indicate that the amount of venting and flaring activity has changed over time, there is currently insufficient data to assess the change in methane emissions associated with these fluctuations. Given the considerable uncertainty in the emissions estimate for this stage, and the inability to discern a trend in actual emissions, the 1990 emissions estimate was held constant for the years 1991 through 1997.

See Annex F for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate methane emissions from petroleum systems.

Data Sources

Data on the number of oil wells in production fields were taken from the American Petroleum Institute (API 1998) as was the number of oil wells that do not produce natural gas. Crude oil storage, crude oil stocks, crude oil production, utilization, and import data were obtained from the U.S. Department of Energy (EIA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998). U.S. refinery capacity and Alaskan refinery crude capacity data were extrapolated based on estimates for 1990 through 1996 (EIA 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1997). Emission factors were taken from Tilkicioglu and Winters (1989) and EPA (1993).

Uncertainty

There are significant uncertainties associated with all aspects of the methane emissions estimates from petroleum systems. Published statistics are inadequate for estimating activity data at the level of detail required. Similarly, emission factors for each stage remain uncertain. In particular, there is insufficient information to estimate annual venting and flaring emissions using published statistics. EPA is currently undertaking more detailed analyses of emissions from this source and anticipates that new information will be available for future inventories. Preliminary work suggests that emission estimates will increase. Table 2-29 provides emission estimate ranges given the uncertainty in the venting and flaring estimates.

Table 2-29: Uncertainty in CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Gg)

Stage	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Venting and Flaring (point estimate)	231	231	231	231	231	231	231	231
Low	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93
High	462	462	462	462	462	462	462	462
Total (point estimate)	272	273	272	272	272	271	271	271
Low	103	103	103	103	103	102	102	102
High	627	631	628	627	625	621	620	621

Natural Gas Flaring and Criteria Pollutant Emissions from Oil and Gas Activities

The flaring of natural gas from oil wells is a small source of carbon dioxide (CO₂). In addition, oil and gas activities also release small amounts of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). This source accounts for only a small proportion of overall emissions of each of these gases. Emissions of CO₂, NO_x, and CO from petroleum and natural gas production activities are all less than 1 percent of national totals, while NMVOC emissions are roughly 3 percent of national totals.

Carbon dioxide emissions from petroleum production result from natural gas that is flared (i.e., combusted) at the production site. Barns and Edmonds (1990) noted that of total reported U.S. venting and flaring, approximately 20 percent may be vented, with the remaining 80 percent flared; however, it is now believed that flaring accounts for an even greater proportion, although some venting still occurs. Methane emissions from venting are accounted for under Petroleum Systems. For 1997, the CO₂ emissions from the flaring were estimated to be approximately 4.2 MMTCE (15.2 Tg), an increase of 82 percent since 1990 (see Table 2-30).

Criteria pollutant emissions from oil and gas production, transportation, and storage, constituted a relatively small and stable portion of the total emissions of these gases for the 1990 to 1997 period (see Table 2-31).

Methodology

The estimates for CO₂ emissions were prepared using an emission factor of 14.92 MMTCE/QBtu of flared gas, and an assumed flaring efficiency of 100 percent. The quantity of flared gas was estimated as the total reported vented and flared gas minus a constant 12,031 million cubic feet, which was assumed to be vented.¹⁸

Criteria pollutant emission estimates for NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs were determined using industry-published production data and applying average emission factors.

Table 2-30: CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Flaring

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	2.3	8.4
1991	2.6	9.6
1992	2.6	9.4
1993	3.5	13.0
1994	3.6	13.1
1995	4.5	16.4
1996	4.3	15.7
1997	4.2	15.2

Table 2-31: NO_x, NMVOCs, and CO Emissions from Oil and Gas Activities (Gg)

Year	NO _x	CO	NMVOCs
1990	139	302	555
1991	110	313	581
1992	134	337	574
1993	111	337	588
1994	106	307	587
1995	100	316	582
1996	100	316	469
1997	104	330	488

Data Sources

Activity data in terms of total natural gas vented and flared for estimating CO₂ emissions from natural gas flaring were taken from EIA's *Natural Gas Annual* (EIA 1998). The emission and thermal conversion factors were also provided by EIA (see Table 2-32)

EPA (1998) provided emission estimates for NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from petroleum refining, petroleum product storage and transfer, and petroleum marketing operations. Included are gasoline, crude oil and distillate fuel oil storage and transfer operations, gasoline bulk terminal and bulk plants operations, and retail gasoline service stations operations.

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in CO₂ emission estimates primarily arise from assumptions concerning what proportion of natural gas is flared and the flaring efficiency. The portion assumed vented as methane in the methodology for Petroleum Systems is currently held constant over

¹⁸ See the methodological discussion under Petroleum Systems for the basis of the portion of natural gas assumed vented.

Table 2-32: Total Natural Gas Reported Vented and Flared (million ft³) and Thermal Conversion Factor (Btu/ft³)

Year	Vented and Flared	Thermal Conversion Factor
1990	150,415	1,106
1991	169,909	1,108
1992	167,519	1,110
1993	226,743	1,106
1994	228,336	1,105
1995	283,739	1,106
1996	272,117	1,106
1997	263,819	1,106

the period 1990 through 1997 due to the uncertainties involved in the estimate. Uncertainties in criteria pollutant emission estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and projections of growth.

International Bunker Fuels

Emissions resulting from the combustion of fuels used for international transport activities, termed international bunker fuels under the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), are currently not included in national emission totals, but are reported separately on the basis of fuel sold in each country. The decision to report emissions from international bunker fuels separately, instead of allocating them to a particular country, was made by the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee in establishing the Framework Convention on Climate Change.¹⁹ These decisions are reflected in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, in which countries are requested to report emissions from ships or aircraft that depart from their ports and are engaged in international transport separately from national totals (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The Parties to the UNFCCC have yet to decide on a methodology for allocating these emissions.²⁰

Greenhouse gases emitted from the combustion of international bunker fuels, like other fossil fuels, include carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), particulate matter, and sulfur dioxide (SO₂).²¹ Two transport modes are addressed under the IPCC definition of international bunker fuels: aviation and marine. Emissions from ground transport activities—by road vehicles and trains—even when crossing international borders are allocated to the country where the fuel was loaded into the vehicle and, therefore, are not counted as bunker fuel emissions.

The IPCC Guidelines distinguish between different modes of air traffic. Civil aviation comprises aircraft used for the commercial transport of passengers and freight, military aviation comprises aircraft under the control of national armed forces, and general aviation applies to recreational and small corporate aircraft. The IPCC Guidelines further define international bunker fuel use as the fuel combusted for civil (commercial) aviation purposes by aircraft arriving or departing on international flight segments. However, as mentioned above, only the fuel used by aircraft taking-off (i.e., departing) from the United States are reported here. The standard fuel used for civil aviation is kerosene-type jet fuel, while the typical fuel used for general aviation is aviation gasoline.²²

Emissions of CO₂ from aircraft are a function of fuel use, whereas emissions per flight or ton-mile in the case of cargo, are a function of flight path, fuel efficiency of the aircraft and its engines, occupancy, and load factor. Methane, N₂O, CO, NO_x, and NMVOC emissions depend upon engine characteristics, flight conditions, and flight phase (i.e., take-off, climb, cruise, descent, and landing). Methane, CO, and NMVOCs are the product of incomplete combustion and occur mainly during the landing and take-off phases. In jet engines, N₂O and NO_x are primarily produced by the oxidation

¹⁹ See report of the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for a Framework Convention on Climate Change on the work of its ninth session, held at Geneva from 7 to 18 February 1994 (A/AC.237/55, annex I, para. 1c) (contact secretariat@unfccc.de).

²⁰ See FCCC/SBSTA/1996/9/Add.1 and Add.2 for a discussions of allocation options for international bunker fuels (see <http://www.unfccc.de/fccc/docs/1996/sbsta/09a01.pdf> and [/09a02.pdf](http://www.unfccc.de/fccc/docs/1996/sbsta/09a02.pdf)).

²¹ Sulfur dioxide emissions from jet aircraft and marine vessels, although not estimated here, are mainly determined by the sulfur content of the fuel. On average jet fuel has a sulfur content around 0.05 percent, while distillate diesel fuel averages around 0.3 percent and residual fuel oil around 2.3 percent.

²² Naphtha-type jet fuel is used primarily by the military in turbojet and turboprop aircraft engines.

of atmospheric nitrogen, and the majority of emissions occur during the cruise phase. The impact of NO_x on atmospheric chemistry depends on the altitude of the actual emission. The cruising altitude of supersonic aircraft, near or in the ozone layer, is higher than that of subsonic aircraft. At this higher altitude, NO_x emissions contribute to ozone depletion.²³ At the cruising altitudes of subsonic aircraft, however, NO_x emissions contribute to the formation of ozone. At these lower altitudes, the positive radiative forcing effect of ozone is most potent.²⁴ The vast majority of aircraft NO_x emissions occur at these lower cruising altitudes of commercial subsonic aircraft²⁵ (NASA 1996).

International marine bunkers comprise emissions from fuels burned by ocean-going ships of all flags that are engaged in international transport. Ocean-going ships are generally classified as cargo and passenger carrying, military (i.e., navy), fishing, and miscellaneous support ships (e.g., tugboats). For the purpose of estimating greenhouse gas emissions, international bunker fuels are solely related to cargo and passenger carrying vessels, which is the largest of the four categories. Two main types of fuels are used on sea-going vessels: distillate diesel fuel and residual fuel oil. Carbon dioxide is the primary greenhouse gas emitted from marine shipping. In comparison to aviation, the atmospheric impacts of NO_x from shipping are relatively minor, as the emissions occur at ground level.

Overall, aggregate greenhouse gas emissions in 1997 from the combustion of international bunker fuels from both aviation and marine activities decreased by 2 percent since 1990, to 26.8 MMTCE (see Table 2-33). Although emissions from international flights departing from the United States have increased significantly (33 percent), emissions from international shipping voyages departing the United States appear to have decreased by a greater absolute amount.²⁶ The majority of these

emissions were in the form of carbon dioxide; however, small amounts of CH_4 and N_2O were also emitted. Of the criteria pollutants, emissions of NO_x by aircraft at cruising altitudes are of primary concern because of their effects on ozone formation (see Table 2-38).

Emissions from both aviation and marine international transport activities are expected to grow in the future as both air traffic and trade increase, although emission rates should decrease over time due to technological changes.²⁷

Methodology

Emissions of CO_2 were estimated through the application of carbon content and fraction oxidized factors to fuel consumption activity data. This approach is analogous to that described under CO_2 from Fossil Fuel Combustion. A complete description of the methodology and a listing of the various factors employed can be found in Annex A.

Emission estimates for CH_4 , N_2O , CO , NO_x , and NMVOCs were calculated by multiplying emission factors by measures of fuel consumption by fuel type and mode. Activity data for aviation included solely jet fuel consumption statistics, while the marine mode included both distillate diesel and residual fuel oil.

Data Sources

Carbon content and fraction oxidized factors for kerosene-type jet fuel, distillate fuel oil, and residual fuel oil were taken directly from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) of the U.S. Department of Energy and are presented in Annex A. Heat content and density conversions were taken from EIA (1998). Emission factors used in the calculations of CH_4 , N_2O , CO , NO_x , and NMVOC emissions were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). For aircraft emis-

²³ In 1996, there were only around a dozen civilian supersonic aircraft in service around the world which flew at these altitudes, however.

²⁴ However, at this lower altitude, ozone does little to shield the earth from ultraviolet radiation.

²⁵ Cruise altitudes for civilian subsonic aircraft generally range from 8.2 to 12.5 km (27,000 to 41,000 feet).

²⁶ See Uncertainty section for a discussion of data quality issues.

²⁷ Most emission related international aviation and marine regulations are under the rubric of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) or the International Maritime Organization (IMO), which develop international codes, recommendations, and conventions, such as the International Convention of the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL).

Table 2-33: Emissions from International Bunker Fuels (MMTCE)

Gas/Mode	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	27.1	27.8	29.0	29.9	27.4	25.4	25.4	26.6
Aviation	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.2	11.6	12.4	12.8	13.9
Marine	16.6	17.3	18.0	18.7	15.8	13.0	12.6	12.7
CH₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Aviation	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Marine	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Aviation	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Marine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	27.3	28.0	29.3	30.2	27.6	25.7	25.6	26.8

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Excludes emissions from military fuel consumption. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

Table 2-34: Emissions from International Bunker Fuels (Gg)

Gas/Mode	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CO₂	99,258	101,925	106,404	109,605	100,377	93,296	92,991	97,542
Aviation	38,432	38,450	40,413	41,100	42,491	45,528	46,957	50,974
Marine	60,826	63,475	65,990	68,505	57,886	47,768	46,034	46,568
CH₄	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Aviation	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Marine	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
N₂O	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Aviation	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Marine	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
CO	99	100	105	108	104	103	104	111
Aviation	63	63	66	68	70	75	77	84
Marine	35	37	39	40	34	28	27	27
NO_x	1,777	1,849	1,923	1,993	1,716	1,459	1,417	1,448
Aviation	152	152	160	162	168	180	186	202
Marine	1,625	1,697	1,764	1,831	1,547	1,278	1,231	1,246
NMVOc	53	54	57	59	52	45	44	46
Aviation	9	9	10	10	10	11	12	13
Marine	43	45	47	49	41	34	33	33

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Excludes emissions from military fuel consumption. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

sions, the following values, in units of grams of pollutant per kilogram of fuel consumed (g/kg), were employed: 0.09 for CH₄, 0.1 for N₂O, 5.2 for CO, 12.5 for NO_x, and 0.78 for NMVOcs. For marine vessels consuming either distillate diesel or residual fuel oil the following values, in the same units, except where noted, were employed: 0.03 for CH₄, 0.08 for N₂O, 1.9 for CO, 87 for NO_x, and 0.052 g/MJ for NMVOcs.

Activity data on aircraft fuel consumption were collected from two government agencies. Jet fuel consumed by U.S. flagged air carriers for international flight segments was supplied by the Bureau of Transportation Statistics

(DOT/BTS 1998). It was assumed that 50 percent of the fuel used by U.S. flagged carriers for international flights—both departing and arriving in the United States—was purchased domestically for flights departing from the United States. In other words, only one-half of the total annual fuel consumption estimate was used in the calculations. Data on jet fuel expenditures by foreign flagged carriers departing U.S. airports was taken from unpublished data collected by the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) under the U.S. Department of Commerce (BEA 1998). Approximate average fuel prices paid by air carriers for aircraft on international flights were taken from DOT/BTS

(1998) and used to convert the BEA expenditure data to gallons of fuel consumed. Final jet fuel consumption estimates are presented in Table 2-39.

Activity data on distillate diesel and residual fuel oil consumption by cargo or passenger carrying marine vessels departing from U.S. ports were taken from unpublished data collected by the Foreign Trade Division of the U.S. Department of Commerce's Bureau of the Census (DOC 1998). These fuel consumption estimates are presented in Table 2-36.

Uncertainty

Emission estimates related to the consumption of international bunker fuels are subject to the same uncertainties as those from domestic aviation and marine mobile source emissions; however, additional uncertainties result from the difficulty in collecting accurate fuel consumption activity data for international transport activities separate from domestic transport activities.²⁸ For example, smaller aircraft on shorter routes often carry sufficient fuel to complete several flight segments without refueling in order to minimize time spent at the airport gate or take advantage of lower fuel prices at par-

ticular airports. This practice, called tankering, when done on international flights, complicates the use of fuel sales data for estimating bunker fuel emissions. Tankering is less common with the type of large, long-range aircraft that make many international flights from the United States, however. Similar practices occur in the marine shipping industry where fuel costs represent a significant portion of overall operating costs and fuel prices vary from port to port, leading to some tankering from ports with low fuel costs.

Particularly for aviation, the DOT/BTS (1998) international flight segment fuel data used for U.S. flagged carriers does not include smaller air carriers and unfortunately defines flights departing to Canada and some flights to Mexico as domestic instead of international. As for the BEA (1998) data on foreign flagged carriers, there is some uncertainty as to the average fuel price, and to the completeness of the data. It was also not possible to determine what portion of fuel purchased by foreign carriers at U.S. airports was actually used on domestic flight segments; this error, however, is believed to be small.²⁹

Table 2-35: Civil Aviation Jet Fuel Consumption for International Transport (million gallons)

Nationality	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
U.S. Carriers	1,982	1,970	2,069	2,078	2,155	2,256	2,329	2,482
Foreign Carriers	2,062	2,075	2,185	2,252	2,326	2,549	2,629	2,900
Total	4,043	4,045	4,254	4,330	4,482	4,804	4,958	5,382

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Excludes military fuel consumption. The density of kerosene-type jet fuel was assumed to be 3.002 kg/gallon.

Table 2-36: Marine Vessel Distillate and Residual Fuel Consumption for International Transport (million gallons)

Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residual Fuel Oil	4,761	4,920	5,137	5,354	4,475	3,567	3,504	3,495
Distillate Diesel Fuel & Other	521	600	598	595	561	609	510	573

Note: Excludes military fuel consumption. The density of residual fuel oil and distillate diesel fuel were assumed to be 3.575 and 3.192 kg/gallon, respectively.

²⁸ See uncertainty discussions under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion and Mobile Source Fossil Fuel Combustion.

²⁹ Although foreign flagged air carriers are prevented from providing domestic flight services in the United States, passengers may be collected from multiple airports before an aircraft actually departs on its international flight segment. Emissions from these earlier domestic flight segments should be classified as domestic, not international, according to the IPCC.

Although aggregate fuel consumption data has been used to estimate emissions from aviation, the recommended method for estimating emissions in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* is to use data by specific aircraft type (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The IPCC also recommends that cruise altitude emissions be estimated separately using fuel consumption data, while landing and take-off (LTO) cycle data be used to estimate near-ground level emissions.³⁰ The EPA is developing revised estimates based on this more detailed activity data, and these estimates are to be presented in future inventories.

There is also concern as to the reliability of the existing DOC (1998) data on marine vessel fuel consumption reported at U.S. customs stations due to the significant degree of inter-annual variation. Of note is that fuel consumption data were not available for the year 1990; therefore, an average of 1989 and 1991 data was employed.

No estimates of bunker fuel emissions resulting from military aviation or marine activities have been presented here because of a lack of detailed fuel consumption data from the U.S. Department of Defense (DOD). The DOD is developing their own institutional greenhouse gas inventory, and therefore, future U.S. inventories are expected to include estimates of military bunker fuel emissions.

Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption

The combustion of biomass fuels—such as wood, charcoal, and wood waste—and biomass-based fuels—such as ethanol from corn and woody crops—generates carbon dioxide (CO₂). However, in the long run the carbon dioxide emitted from biomass consumption does not increase atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations, assuming the biogenic carbon emitted is offset by the

uptake of CO₂ resulting from the growth of new biomass. As a result, CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion have been estimated separately from fossil fuel-based emissions and are not included in the U.S. totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs in wooded or crop lands are accounted for under the Land-Use Change and Forestry sector.

In 1997, CO₂ emissions due to burning of woody biomass within the industrial and residential/commercial sectors and by electric utilities were about 57.2 MMTCE (209.8 Tg) (see Table 2-37 and Table 2-38). As the largest consumer of woody biomass, the industrial sector in 1997 was responsible for 81 percent of the CO₂ emissions in from this source. The combined residential/commercial³¹ sector was the second largest emitter, making up 18 percent of total emissions from woody biomass. The commercial end-use sector and electric utilities accounted for the remainder.

Since 1990, emissions of CO₂ from biomass burning increased by a maximum of 12 percent in 1996, before falling back to a 3 percent increase in 1997. The decrease in emissions from 1996 to 1997 was due to a 26 percent decline in woody biomass consumption in the residential/commercial sector.

Biomass-derived fuel consumption in the United States consisted mainly of ethanol use in the transportation sector. Ethanol is primarily produced from corn grown in the Midwest, and was used mostly in the Midwest and South. Pure ethanol can be combusted, or it can be mixed with gasoline as a supplement or octane-enhancing agent. The most common mixture is a 90 percent gasoline, 10 percent ethanol blend known as gasohol. Ethanol and ethanol blends are often used to fuel public transport vehicles such as buses, or centrally fueled fleet vehicles. Ethanol and ethanol blends are believed to burn “cleaner” than gasoline (i.e., lower in NO_x and hydrocarbon emissions), and have been employed

³⁰ It should be noted that in the EPA's *Draft National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends, 1900 - 1997* (EPA 1998), U.S. aviation emission estimates for CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs are based solely upon LTO cycles and consequently only capture near ground-level emissions, which are more relevant for air quality evaluations. These estimates also include both domestic and international flights. Therefore, estimates given under Mobile Source Fossil Fuel Combustion overestimate IPCC-defined domestic CO, NO_x, and NMVOC emissions by including landing and take-off (LTO) cycles by aircraft on international flights but underestimate because they do not include emissions from aircraft on domestic flight segments at cruising altitudes. EPA (1998) is also likely to include emissions from ocean-going vessels departing from U.S. ports on international voyages.

³¹ For this emissions source, data are not disaggregated into residential and commercial sectors.

Table 2-37: CO₂ Emissions from Wood Consumption by End-Use Sector (MMTCE)

End-Use Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utility	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Industrial	42.4	42.3	44.5	45.4	46.6	45.4	48.0	46.4
Residential/Commercial	12.7	13.4	14.1	12.9	12.7	14.0	14.0	10.4
Total	55.6	56.2	59.0	58.8	59.7	59.7	62.4	57.2

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-38: CO₂ Emissions from Wood Consumption by End-Use Sector (Tg)

End-Use Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utility	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.5
Industrial	155.6	155.2	163.2	166.5	170.9	166.5	175.8	170.3
Residential/Commercial	46.4	49.0	51.5	47.3	46.5	51.2	51.4	38.0
Total	203.8	205.9	216.5	215.4	219.0	219.1	228.8	209.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

in urban areas with poor air quality. However, because ethanol is a hydrocarbon fuel, its combustion emits CO₂.

In 1997, the United States consumed an estimated 97 trillion Btus of ethanol (1.3 billion gallons). Emissions of CO₂ in 1997 due to ethanol fuel burning were estimated to be approximately 1.8 MMTCE (6.7 Tg) (see Table 2-39). Between 1990 and 1991, emissions of CO₂ due to ethanol fuel consumption fell by 21 percent. After this decline, emissions from ethanol steadily increased through 1997, except for a sharp decline in 1996.

Ethanol production dropped sharply in the middle of 1996 because of short corn supplies and high prices. Plant output began to increase toward the end of the growing season, reaching close to normal levels at the end of the year. However, total 1996 ethanol production

fell far short of the 1995 level (EIA 1997). Production in 1997 returned to normal historic levels.

Methodology

Woody biomass emissions were estimated by converting U.S. consumption data in energy units (17.2 million Btu per short ton) to megagrams (Mg) of dry matter using EIA assumptions. Once consumption data for each sector were converted to megagrams of dry matter, the carbon content of the dry fuel was estimated based on default values of 45 to 50 percent carbon in dry biomass. The amount of carbon released from combustion was estimated using 87 percent for the fraction oxidized (i.e., combustion efficiency). Ethanol consumption data in energy units were also multiplied by a carbon coefficient (18.96 mg C/Btu) to produce carbon emission estimates.

Data Sources

Woody biomass consumption data were provided by EIA (1998) (see Table 2-40). The factor for converting energy units to mass was supplied by EIA (1994). Carbon content and combustion efficiency values were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Table 2-39: CO₂ Emissions from Ethanol Consumption

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	1.6	5.7
1991	1.2	4.5
1992	1.5	5.5
1993	1.7	6.1
1994	1.8	6.7
1995	2.0	7.2
1996	1.4	5.1
1997	1.8	6.7

Table 2-40: Woody Biomass Consumption by Sector (Trillion Btu)

Year	Industrial	Residential/ Commercial	Electric Utility
1990	1,948	581	21
1991	1,943	613	21
1992	2,042	645	22
1993	2,084	592	20
1994	2,138	582	20
1995	2,084	641	17
1996	2,200	644	20
1997	2,132	475	19

Table 2-41: Ethanol Consumption

Year	Trillion Btu
1990	82
1991	65
1992	79
1993	88
1994	97
1995	104
1996	74

Emissions from ethanol were estimated using consumption data from EIA (1998) (see Table 2-41). The carbon coefficient used was provided by OTA (1991).

Uncertainty

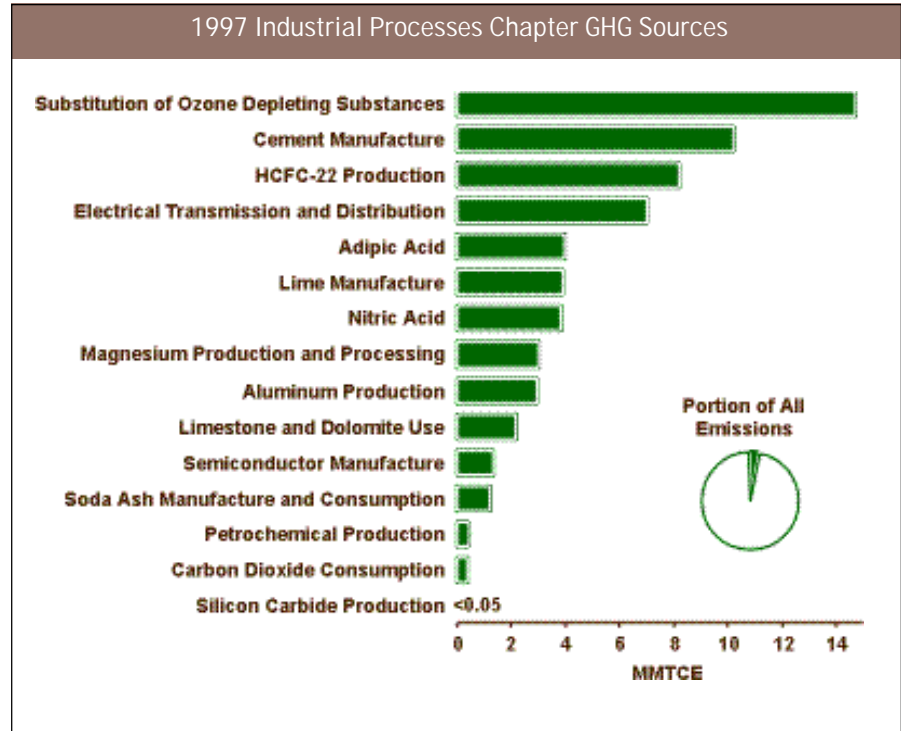
The combustion efficiency factor used is believed to under estimate the efficiency of wood combustion processes in the United States. The IPCC emission factor has been used because better data are not yet available. Increasing the combustion efficiency would increase emission estimates. In addition, according to EIA (1994) commercial wood energy use is typically not reported because there are no accurate data sources to provide reliable estimates. Emission estimates from ethanol production are more certain than estimates from woody biomass consumption due to better activity data collection methods and uniform combustion techniques.

3. Industrial Processes

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as a by-product of various non-energy-related industrial activities. That is, these emissions are produced from an industrial process itself and are not directly a result of energy consumed during the process. For example, raw materials can be chemically transformed from one state to another. This transformation can result in the release of greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), or nitrous oxide (N₂O). The processes addressed in this chapter include cement production, lime manufacture, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and use, CO₂ consumption, iron and steel production, ammonia manufacture, ferroalloy production, aluminum production, petrochemical production (including carbon black, ethylene, dichloroethylene, styrene, and methanol), silicon carbide production, adipic acid production, and nitric acid production (see Figure 3-1).¹

In addition to the three greenhouse gases listed above, there are also industrial sources of several classes of man-made fluorinated compounds called hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). The present contribution of these gases to the radiative forcing effect of all anthropogenic greenhouse gases is small; however, because of their extremely long lifetimes, they will continue to accumulate in the atmosphere as long as emissions continue. Sulfur hexafluoride, itself, is the most potent greenhouse gas the IPCC has ever evaluated. Usage of these gases, especially HFCs, is growing rap-

Figure 3-1



¹ Carbon dioxide emissions from iron and steel production, ammonia manufacture, ferroalloy production, and aluminum production are included in the Energy chapter under Fossil Fuel Combustion of industrial coking coal, natural gas, and petroleum coke.

idly as they are the primary substitutes for ozone depleting substances (ODSs), which are being phased-out under the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. In addition to ODS substitutes, HFCs, PFCs, and other fluorinated compounds are employed and emitted by a number of other industrial sources in the United States. These industries include aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacture, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium metal production and processing.

In 1997, industrial processes generated emission of 63.0 MMTCE, or 3.5 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Carbon dioxide emissions from all industrial processes were 17.8 MMTCE (65.2 Tg) in the same year. This amount accounted for only 1 percent of national CO₂ emissions. Methane emissions from petrochemical and silicon carbide production resulted in emissions of approximately 0.4 MMTCE (0.1 Tg) in 1997, which was less than 1 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions. Nitrous oxide emissions from adipic acid and nitric acid production were 7.8 MMTCE (0.1 Tg) in 1997, or 7 percent of total U.S. N₂O emissions. In the same year, combined emissions of HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ totaled 37.1 MMTCE. Overall, emissions from industrial processes increased by 39 percent from 1990 to 1997.

Emission estimates are presented in this chapter for several industrial processes that are actually accounted for within the Energy chapter. Although CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production, ammonia manufacture, ferroalloy production, and aluminum production are not the result of the combustion of fossil fuels for energy, their associated emissions are captured in the fuel data for industrial coking coal, natural gas, industrial coking coal, and petroleum coke, respectively. Consequently, if all emissions were attributed to their appropriate chapter, then emissions from energy would decrease by roughly 33 MMTCE in 1997, and industrial process emissions would increase by the same amount.

Greenhouse gases are also emitted from a number of industrial processes not addressed in this chapter. For example, caprolactam—a chemical feedstock for the manufacture of nylon 6,6—and urea production are believed to be industrial sources of N₂O emissions. However, emissions for these and other sources have not been estimated at this time due to a lack of information on the emission processes, manufacturing data, or both. As more information becomes available, emission estimates for these processes will be calculated and included in future greenhouse gas emission inventories, although their contribution is expected to be small.²

The general method employed to estimate emissions for industrial processes, as recommended by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), generally involved multiplying production data for each process by an emission factor per unit of production. The emission factors used were either derived using calculations that assume precise and efficient chemical reactions or were based upon empirical data in published references. As a result, uncertainties in the emission coefficients can be attributed to, among other things, inefficiencies in the chemical reactions associated with each production process or to the use of empirically derived emission factors that are biased and, therefore, may not represent U.S. national averages. Additional sources of uncertainty specific to an individual source category are discussed in each section.

Table 3-1 summarizes emissions for the Industrial Processes chapter in units of million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE), while unweighted gas emissions in teragrams (Tg) are provided in Table 3-2.

Cement Manufacture

Cement manufacture is an energy and raw material intensive process resulting in the generation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) from both the energy consumed in making the cement and the chemical process itself.³ Ce-

² See Annex P for a discussion of emission sources excluded.

³ The CO₂ emissions related to the consumption of energy for cement manufacture are accounted for under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter.

ment production accounts for about 2.4 percent of total global industrial and energy-related CO₂ emissions (IPCC 1996), and the United States is the world's third largest cement producer. Cement is manufactured in almost every state and is used in all of them. Carbon dioxide, emitted from the chemical process of cement production, represents one of the largest sources of industrial CO₂ emissions in the United States.

During cement production process, calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is heated in a cement kiln at a temperature of 1,930°C (3,500°F) to form lime (i.e., calcium oxide or CaO) and CO₂. This process is known as calcination or calcining. Next, the lime is combined with silica-containing materials to produce clinker (an intermediate product), with the earlier by-product CO₂ being released to the atmosphere. The clinker is then allowed to cool, mixed with a small amount of gypsum, and used to make Portland cement. The production of masonry cement from Portland cement requires additional lime and, thus, results in additional CO₂ emissions. However, this additional lime is already accounted for in the Lime Manufacture source category in this chapter; therefore, the additional emissions from making masonry cement from clinker are not counted in this source's total. They are presented here for informational purposes only.

In 1997, U.S. clinker production—including Puerto Rico—totaled 73,889 thousand metric tons, and U.S. masonry cement production reached 3,473 thousand metric tons (USGS 1998). The resulting emissions of CO₂ from clinker production were estimated to be 10.2 MMTCE (37.5 Tg) (see Table 3-3). Emissions from masonry production from clinker raw material were estimated to be 0.02 MMTCE (0.09 Tg) in 1997, but again are accounted for under Lime Manufacture.

After falling in 1991 by 2 percent from 1990 levels, cement production emissions have grown every year since. Overall, from 1990 to 1997 emissions increased by 15 percent. In 1997, output by cement plants increased 3 percent over 1996, to 73,889 thousand metric tons. Cement is a critical component of the construction industry; therefore, the availability of public construction funding, as well as overall economic growth, will have considerable influence on cement production in the fu-

Table 3-3: CO₂ Emissions from Cement Production*

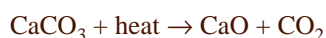
Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	8.9	32.6
1991	8.7	31.9
1992	8.8	32.1
1993	9.3	33.9
1994	9.7	35.4
1995	9.9	36.1
1996	9.9	36.4
1997	10.2	37.5

* Totals exclude CO₂ emissions from making masonry cement from clinker, which are accounted for under Lime Manufacture.

ture. In the near term, a strong domestic economy and the passage of the Federal Highway Act are two key factors that may lift the market for construction materials and, thus, create growth in the cement industry.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions from cement manufacture are created by the chemical reaction of carbon-containing minerals (i.e., calcining limestone). While in the kiln, limestone is broken down into CO₂ and lime with the CO₂ released to the atmosphere. The quantity of the CO₂ emitted during cement production is directly proportional to the lime content of the clinker. During calcination, each mole of CaCO₃ (i.e., limestone) heated in the clinker kiln forms one mole of lime (CaO) and one mole of CO₂:



Carbon dioxide emissions were estimated by applying an emission factor, in tons of CO₂ released per ton of clinker produced, to the total amount of clinker produced. The emission factor used in this analysis is the product of the average lime fraction for clinker of 64.6 percent (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) and a constant reflecting the mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime. This yields an emission factor of 0.507 tons of CO₂ per ton of clinker produced. The emission factor was calculated as follows:

$$\text{EF}_{\text{Clinker}} = 0.646 \text{ CaO} \times \left[\frac{44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2}{56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO}} \right] = 0.507 \text{ tons CO}_2/\text{ton clinker}$$

Masonry cement requires additional lime over and above the lime used in clinker production. In particular, non-plasticizer additives such as lime, slag, and shale are added to the cement, increasing its weight by approximately 5 percent. Lime accounts for approximately 60 percent of this added weight. Thus, the additional lime is equivalent to roughly 2.86 percent of the starting amount of the product, since:

$$0.6 \times 0.05 / (1 + 0.05) = 2.86\%$$

An emission factor for this added lime can then be calculated by multiplying this percentage (2.86 percent) by the molecular weight ratio of CO₂ to CaO (0.785) to yield 0.0224 metric tons of additional CO₂ emitted for every metric ton of masonry cement produced.

As previously mentioned, the CO₂ emissions from the additional lime added during masonry cement production are accounted for in the section on CO₂ emissions from Lime Manufacture. Thus, these emissions were estimated in this chapter for informational purposes only, and are not included in the cement emission totals.

Data Sources

The activity data for cement and clinker production (see Table 3-4) were taken from U.S. Geological Survey (USGS 1992, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998); the 1997 figure was adjusted, as stated below, from USGS, *Mineral Industry Surveys: Cement in December 1997*. The data were compiled by USGS through questionnaires sent to domestic clinker and cement manufacturing plants. For 1997, clinker figures were not yet available. Thus, as recommended by the USGS, clinker production was estimated for 1997 by subtracting 5 percent from Portland cement production (Portland cement is a mixture of clinker and approximately 5 percent gypsum) and by subtracting imported clinker.

Uncertainty

The uncertainties contained in these estimates are primarily due to uncertainties in the lime content of clinker and in the amount of lime added to masonry cement. For example, the lime content of clinker varies from 64

Table 3-4: Cement Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Clinker	Masonry
1990	64,355	3,209
1991	62,918	2,856
1992	63,415	3,093
1993	66,957	2,975
1994	69,786	3,283
1995	71,257	3,603
1996	71,706	3,469
1997	73,889	3,473

to 66 percent. Also, some amount of CO₂ is reabsorbed when the cement is used for construction. As cement reacts with water, alkaline substances such as calcium hydroxide are formed. During this curing process, these compounds may react with CO₂ in the atmosphere to create calcium carbonate. This reaction only occurs in roughly the outer 0.2 inches of surface area. Since the amount of CO₂ reabsorbed is thought to be minimal, it is not considered in this analysis.

Lime Manufacture

Lime, or calcium oxide (CaO), is an important manufactured product with many industrial, chemical, and environmental applications. Lime has historically ranked fifth in total production of all chemicals in the United States. Its major uses are in steel making, flue gas desulfurization (FGD) at coal-fired electric power plants, construction, pulp and paper manufacturing, and water purification. Lime production involves three main processes: stone preparation, calcination, and hydration. Carbon dioxide is generated during the calcination stage, when limestone—mostly calcium carbonate (CaCO₃)—is roasted at high temperatures in a kiln to produce CaO and CO₂. The CO₂ is driven off as a gas and is normally emitted to the atmosphere. Some of the CO₂ generated during the production process, however, is recovered at some facilities for use in sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC)⁴ production.

Lime production in the United States—including Puerto Rico—was reported to be 19,300 thousand metric

⁴ Precipitated calcium carbonate is a specialty filler used in premium-quality coated and uncoated papers.

tons in 1997 (USGS 1998). This resulted in CO₂ emissions of 3.9 MMTCE (14.2 Tg) (see Table 3-5 and Table 3-6).

Domestic lime manufacture has increased every year since 1991, when it declined by 1 percent from 1990 levels. Production in 1997 increased 1 percent over that in 1996 to about 19,300 thousand metric tons. Overall, from 1990 to 1997, CO₂ emissions increased by 19 percent. This increase is attributed in part to growth in demand for environmental applications. In 1993, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) completed regulations under the Clean Air Act capping sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emissions from electric utilities. This action resulted in greater lime consumption for flue gas desulfurization systems, which increased by 16 percent in 1993 (USGS 1994). At the turn of the century, over 80 percent of lime consumed in the United States went for construction uses. However by the 1990s over 90 percent was consumed for chemical and industrial purposes, of which 28 percent were environmental uses (USGS 1997).

Table 3-5: Net CO₂ Emissions from Lime Manufacture

Year	MMTCE
1990	3.3
1991	3.2
1992	3.3
1993	3.4
1994	3.5
1995	3.7
1996	3.8
1997	3.9

Table 3-6: CO₂ Emissions from Lime Manufacture (Tg)

Year	Potential	Recovered*	Net Emissions
1990	12.5	(0.5)	11.9
1991	12.3	(0.6)	11.7
1992	12.7	(0.6)	12.1
1993	13.2	(0.8)	12.4
1994	13.7	(0.9)	12.8
1995	14.5	(0.9)	13.6
1996	15.0	(0.9)	14.1
1997	15.1	(0.9)	14.2

* For sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate production

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

During the calcination stage of lime manufacture, CO₂ is driven off as a gas and normally exits the system with the stack gas. The mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime produced can be calculated based on stoichiometry:

$$(44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO}) = 0.785 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g CaO}$$

Lime production in the United States was 19,300 thousand metric tons in 1997 (USGS 1998), resulting in potential CO₂ emissions of 15.1 Tg. Some of the CO₂ generated during the production process, however, was recovered for use in sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC) production. Combined lime manufacture by these producers was 1,470 thousand metric tons in 1997, generating 1.2 Tg of CO₂. It was assumed that approximately 80 percent of the CO₂ involved in sugar refining and PCC was recovered.

Data Sources

The activity data for lime manufacture and lime consumption by sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC) for 1990 through 1992 (see Table 3-7) were taken from USGS (1991, 1992); for 1993 through 1994 from Michael Miller (1995); for 1995 through 1996 from USGS (1997); and for 1997 from USGS (1998).

Uncertainty

The term “lime” is actually a general term that includes various chemical and physical forms of this commodity. Uncertainties in the emission estimate can be attributed to slight differences in the chemical composition of these products. For example, although much care is taken

Table 3-7: Lime Production and Lime Use for Sugar Refining and PCC (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Production	Use
1990	15,859	826
1991	15,694	964
1992	16,227	1,023
1993	16,800	1,310
1994	17,400	1,377
1995	18,500	1,504
1996	19,100	1,428
1997	19,300	1,470

to avoid contamination during the production process, lime typically contains trace amounts of impurities such as iron oxide, alumina and silica. Due to differences in the limestone used as a raw material, a rigid specification of lime material is impossible. As a result, few plants manufacture lime with exactly the same properties.

In addition, a portion of the CO₂ emitted during lime manufacture will actually be reabsorbed when the lime is consumed. In most processes that use lime (e.g., water softening), CO₂ reacts with the lime to create calcium carbonate. This is not necessarily true about lime consumption in the steel industry, however, which is the largest consumer of lime. A detailed accounting of lime use in the United States and further research into the associated processes are required to quantify the amount of CO₂ that is reabsorbed. As more information becomes available, this emission estimate will be adjusted accordingly.

In some cases, lime is generated from calcium carbonate by-products at paper mills and water treatment plants.⁵ The lime generated by these processes is not included in the USGS data for commercial lime consumption. In the paper industry, mills which employ the sulfate process (i.e., Kraft) consume lime in order to causticize a waste sodium carbonate solution (i.e., black liquor). Most sulfate mills recover the waste calcium carbonate after the causticizing operation and calcine it back into lime—thereby generating CO₂—for reuse in the pulping process. However, some of these mills capture the CO₂ released in this process to be used as precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC). Further research is necessary to determine to what extent CO₂ is released to the atmosphere through generation of lime by paper mills.

In the case of water treatment plants, lime is used in the softening process. Some large water treatment plants may recover their waste calcium carbonate and calcine it into quicklime for reuse in the softening process. Further research is necessary to determine the degree to which lime recycling is practiced by water treatment plants in the United States.

⁵ Some carbide producers may also regenerate lime from their calcium hydroxide by-products, which does not result in emissions of CO₂. In making calcium carbide, quicklime is mixed with coke and heated in electric furnaces. The regeneration of lime in this process is done using a waste calcium hydroxide (hydrated lime) [$\text{CaC}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$], not calcium carbonate [CaCO_3]. Thus, the calcium hydroxide is heated in the kiln to simply expel the water [$\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{heat} \rightarrow \text{CaO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$] and no CO₂ is released to the atmosphere.

⁶ Limestone and dolomite are collectively referred to as limestone by the industry, and intermediate varieties are seldom distinguished.

Limestone and Dolomite Use

Limestone (CaCO₃) and dolomite (CaCO₃MgCO₃)⁶ are basic raw materials used by a wide variety of industries, including construction, agriculture, chemical, metallurgy, glass manufacture, and environmental pollution control. Limestone is widely distributed throughout the world in deposits of varying sizes and degrees of purity. Large deposits of limestone occur in nearly every state in the United States, and significant quantities are extracted for industrial applications. For some of these applications, limestone is sufficiently heated as part of a process to generate CO₂ as a by-product. For example, limestone can be used as a flux or purifier in metallurgical furnaces, as a sorbent in flue gas desulfurization (FGD) systems for utility and industrial plants, or as a raw material in glass manufacturing.

In 1997, approximately 15,288 thousand metric tons of limestone and 2,239 thousand metric tons of dolomite were used for these applications. Overall, both limestone and dolomite usage resulted in aggregate CO₂ emissions of 2.1 MMTCE (7.8 Tg) (see Table 3-8 and Table 3-9).

Emissions in 1997 increased 4 percent from the previous year. Although they decreased slightly in 1991, 1992, and 1993, CO₂ emissions from this source have since increased 53 percent from the 1990 baseline. In the future, gradual increases in demand for crushed stone are anticipated based on the volume of work on highway and other infrastructure projects, and the overall growth in the U.S. economy. The increases will also be influenced by construction activity for both publicly and privately funded projects.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions were calculated by multiplying the amount of limestone consumed by an average carbon content for limestone, approximately 12.0 percent for limestone and 13.2 percent for dolomite

Table 3-8: CO₂ Emissions from Limestone & Dolomite Use (MMTCE)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Flux Stone	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.2
Glass Making	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
FGD	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Total	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-9: CO₂ Emissions from Limestone & Dolomite Use (Tg)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Flux Stone	3.0	2.7	2.3	1.9	3.0	3.9	4.2	4.5
Limestone	2.6	2.3	2.0	1.6	2.1	2.5	3.3	3.5
Dolomite	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.8	1.4	0.9	1.0
Glass Making	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Limestone	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Dolomite	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.1	0.1	0.1
FGD	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.8
Total	5.1	4.9	4.5	4.1	5.5	7.0	7.5	7.8

NA (Not Available)
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

(based on stoichiometry). Assuming that all of the carbon was released into the atmosphere, the appropriate emission factor was multiplied by the annual level of consumption for flux stone, glass manufacturing, and FGD systems to determine emissions.

Data Sources

Consumption data for 1990 through 1997 of limestone and dolomite used as flux stone and in glass manufacturing (see Table 3-10) were obtained from the USGS (1991, 1993, 1996, 1997, 1998). Consumption data for limestone used in FGD were taken from unpublished survey data in the Energy Information Administration's Form EI-767, "Steam Electric Plant Operation and Design Report," (EIA 1997).

For 1990, 1994, and 1997, the USGS did not provide a breakdown of limestone and dolomite production by end-use. Consumption figures for these years were estimated by assuming that limestone and dolomite accounted for the same percentage of total crushed stone consumption for a given year as the average of the percentages for the years before and after (exception: 1990

and 1997 consumption were estimated using the percentages for only 1991 and 1996, respectively). Also, starting in 1996, USGS discontinued reporting glass manufacture separately. From 1996 onward, limestone used in glass manufacture is estimated based on its percent of total crushed stone for 1995.

It should be noted that there is a large quantity of crushed stone reported to the USGS under the category "unspecified uses". A portion of this consumption is believed to be limestone or dolomite used as flux stone and for glass manufacture. The quantity listed for "unspecified uses" was, therefore, allocated to each reported end-use according to each end-uses fraction of total consumption in that year.⁷

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in this estimate are due to variations in the chemical composition of limestone. In addition to calcite, limestone may contain smaller amounts of magnesia, silica, and sulfur. The exact specifications for limestone or dolomite used as flux stone vary with the pyrometallurgical process, the kind of ore processed, and the

⁷ This approach was recommended by USGS.

Table 3-10: Limestone & Dolomite Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Flux Stone								
Limestone	5,797	5,213	4,447	3,631	4,792	5,734	7,569	7,967
Dolomite	932	838	737	632	1,739	2,852	1,899	1,999
Glass Making								
Limestone	430	386	495	622	809	958	1,011	1,064
Dolomite	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	216	228	240
FGD	4,369	4,606	4,479	4,274	5,080	5,839	6,115	6,257
NA (Not Available)								

final use of the slag. Similarly, the quality of the limestone used for glass manufacturing will depend on the type of glass being manufactured. Uncertainties also exist in the activity data. Much of the limestone consumed in the United States is reported as “other unspecified uses”; therefore, it is difficult to accurately allocate this unspecified quantity to the correct end-uses. Furthermore, some of the limestone reported as “limestone” is believed to actually be dolomite, which has a higher carbon content than limestone.

Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption

Soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na_2CO_3) is a white crystalline solid that is readily soluble in water and strongly alkaline. Commercial soda ash is used as a raw material in a variety of industrial processes and in many familiar consumer products such as glass, soap and detergents, paper, textiles, and food. It is used primarily as an alkali, either in glass manufacturing or simply as a material that reacts with and neutralizes acids or acidic substances. Internationally, two types of soda ash are produced—natural and synthetic. The United States produces only natural soda ash and is the largest soda ash-producing country in the world. Trona is the principal ore from which natural soda ash is made.

Only two states produce natural soda ash: Wyoming and California. Of these two states, only Wyoming has net emissions of CO_2 . This difference is a result of

the production processes employed in each state.⁸ During the production process used in Wyoming, natural sources of sodium carbonate are heated and transformed into a crude soda ash that requires further refining. Carbon dioxide (CO_2) is generated as a by-product of this reaction, and is eventually emitted into the atmosphere. In addition, CO_2 may also be released when soda ash is consumed.

In 1997, CO_2 emissions from the manufacture of soda ash from trona were approximately 0.5 MMTCE (1.7 Tg). Soda ash consumption in the United States also generated 0.8 MMTCE (2.8 Tg) of CO_2 in 1997. Total emissions from this source in 1997 were then 1.2 MMTCE (4.4 Tg) (see Table 3-11 and Table 3-12). Emissions have fluctuated since 1990. These fluctuations were strongly related to the behavior of the export market and the U.S. economy. Emissions in 1997 increased by 3 percent from the previous year, and have increased 7 percent since 1990.

Table 3-11: CO_2 Emissions from Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption

Year	MMTCE
1990	1.1
1991	1.1
1992	1.1
1993	1.1
1994	1.1
1995	1.2
1996	1.2
1997	1.2

⁸ In California, soda ash is manufactured using sodium carbonate-bearing brines instead of trona ore. To extract the sodium carbonate, the complex brines are first treated with CO_2 in carbonation towers to convert the sodium carbonate into sodium bicarbonate, which then precipitates from the brine solution. The precipitated sodium bicarbonate is then calcined back into sodium carbonate. Although CO_2 is generated as a by-product, the CO_2 is recovered and recycled for use in the carbonation stage and is never actually released.

Table 3-12: CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption (Tg)

Year	Manufacture	Consumption	Total
1990	1.4	2.7	4.1
1991	1.4	2.6	4.0
1992	1.5	2.6	4.1
1993	1.4	2.6	4.1
1994	1.4	2.6	4.0
1995	1.6	2.7	4.3
1996	1.6	2.7	4.3
1997	1.7	2.8	4.4

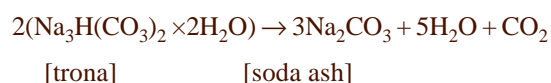
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

The United States has the world's largest deposits of trona and represents about one-third of total world soda ash output. The distribution of soda ash by end-use in 1997 was glass making, 49 percent; chemical production, 26 percent; soap and detergent manufacturing, 12 percent; distributors, 5 percent; flue gas desulfurization, 3 percent; pulp and paper production and miscellaneous, 2 percent each; and water treatment, 1 percent (USGS 1998).

Domestic soda ash is expected to grow between 1 to 1.5 percent per year, while world demand is forecast at 2 to 3 percent annually for the next several years (USGS 1998). Exports are a driving force behind increasing U.S. soda ash production capacity. U.S. soda ash exports increased 9 percent in 1997 to a record 3.8 million metric tons (USGS 1998). The majority of the increase in soda ash consumption is expected to come from Asia and South America (e.g., the automotive manufacturing industry). However, the economic problems in Asia that began in late 1997 will have a direct impact on U.S. soda ash exports. It is estimated that exports to Asia in 1998 will be about 2 percent less than that of 1997 (USGS 1998).

Methodology

During the production process, trona ore is calcined in a rotary kiln and chemically transformed into a crude soda ash that requires further processing. Carbon dioxide and water are generated as a by-products of the calcination process. Carbon dioxide emissions from the calcination of trona can be estimated based on the following chemical reaction:



Based on this formula, approximately 10.27 metric tons of trona are required to generate one metric ton of CO₂. Thus, the 17.1 million metric tons of trona mined in 1997 for soda ash production (USGS 1998) resulted in CO₂ emissions of approximately 0.5 MMTCE (1.7 Tg).

Once manufactured, most soda ash is consumed in glass and chemical production, with minor amounts in soap and detergents, pulp and paper, flue gas desulfurization and water treatment. As soda ash is consumed for these purposes, additional CO₂ is usually emitted. In these applications, it is assumed that one mole of carbon is released for every mole of soda ash used. Thus, approximately 0.113 metric tons of carbon (or 0.415 metric tons of CO₂) are released for every metric ton of soda ash consumed.

Data Sources

The activity data for trona production and soda ash consumption (see Table 3-13) were taken from USGS (1993, 1994, 1995, 1998). Soda ash manufacture and consumption data were collected by the USGS from voluntary surveys of the U.S. soda ash industry. All six of the soda ash manufacturing operations in the United States completed surveys to provide data to the USGS.

Uncertainty

Emissions from soda ash manufacture are considered to be relatively certain. Both the emissions factor and activity data are reliable. However, emissions from soda ash consumption are dependent upon the type of processing employed by each end-use. Specific information characterizing the emissions from each end-use is limited. Therefore, uncertainty exists as to the accuracy of the emission factors.

Table 3-13: Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Manufacture*	Consumption
1990	14,734	6,527
1991	14,674	6,287
1992	14,900	6,360
1993	14,500	6,350
1994	14,600	6,240
1995	16,500	6,510
1996	16,300	6,470
1997	17,100	6,670

* Soda ash manufactured from trona ore only.

Carbon Dioxide Consumption

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is used for a variety of applications, including food processing, chemical production, carbonated beverages, and enhanced oil recovery (EOR). Carbon dioxide used for EOR is injected into the ground to increase reservoir pressure, and is therefore considered sequestered.⁹ For the most part, however, CO₂ used in non-EOR applications will eventually enter the atmosphere.

Carbon dioxide is produced from a small number of natural wells, as a by-product from the production of chemicals (e.g., ammonia), or separated from crude oil and natural gas. Depending on the raw materials that are used, the by-product CO₂ generated during these production processes may already be accounted for in the CO₂ emission estimates from fossil fuel consumption (either during combustion or from non-fuel uses). For example, ammonia is manufactured using primarily natural gas as a feedstock. Carbon dioxide emissions from this process are accounted for in the Energy chapter under Fossil Fuel Combustion and, therefore, are not included here.

In 1997, CO₂ emissions from this source not accounted for elsewhere were 0.3 MMTCE (1.2 Tg) (see Table 3-14). This amount represents an increase of 8 percent from the previous year and is 54 percent higher than emissions in 1990.

Table 3-14: CO₂ Emissions from Carbon Dioxide Consumption

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	0.2	0.8
1991	0.2	0.8
1992	0.2	0.9
1993	0.3	0.9
1994	0.2	0.9
1995	0.3	1.0
1996	0.3	1.1
1997	0.3	1.2

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emission estimates were based on CO₂ consumption with the assumption that the end-use applications, except enhanced oil recovery, eventually release 100 percent of the CO₂ into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide consumption for uses other than enhanced oil recovery was about 6,143 thousand metric tons in 1997. The Freedonia Group estimates that, in the United States, there is an 80 to 20 percent split between CO₂ produced as a by-product and CO₂ produced from natural wells. Thus, emissions are equal to 20 percent of CO₂ consumption. The remaining 80 percent was assumed to already be accounted for in the CO₂ emission estimates from other categories (the most important being Fossil Fuel Combustion).

Data Sources

Carbon dioxide consumption data (see Table 3-15) were obtained from Freedonia Group Inc. (1994, 1996). Data for 1996 were obtained by personal communication with Paul Ita of the Freedonia Group Inc. (1997). The Freedonia Group does not provide estimates for 1997. Therefore, data for 1997 were estimated using the annualized growth rate of carbon dioxide consumption from 1993 to 1996. Percent of carbon dioxide produced from natural wells was obtained from Freedonia Group Inc. (1991).

Table 3-15: Carbon Dioxide Consumption

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	4,000
1991	4,200
1992	4,410
1993	4,559
1994	4,488
1995	4,842
1996	5,702
1997	6,143

⁹ It is unclear to what extent the CO₂ used for EOR will be re-released. For example, the CO₂ used for EOR may show up at the wellhead after a few years of injection (Hangebrauk et al. 1992). This CO₂, however, is typically recovered and re-injected into the well. More research is required to determine the amount of CO₂ that in fact escapes from EOR operations. For the purposes of this analysis, it is assumed that all of the CO₂ remains sequestered.

Uncertainty

Uncertainty exists in the assumed allocation of carbon dioxide produced from fossil fuel by-products (80 percent) and carbon dioxide produced from wells (20 percent). In addition, it is possible that CO₂ recovery exists in particular end-use sectors. Contact with several organizations did not provide any information regarding recovery. More research is required to determine the quantity, if any, that may be recovered.

Iron and Steel Production

In addition to being an energy intensive process, the production of iron and steel also generates process-related emissions of CO₂. Iron is produced by first reducing iron oxide (ore) with metallurgical coke in a blast furnace to produce pig iron (impure iron of about 4 to 4.5 percent carbon by weight). Carbon dioxide is produced as the coke used in this process is oxidized. Steel (less than 2 percent carbon by weight) is produced from pig iron in a variety of specialized steel furnaces. The majority of CO₂ emissions come from the production of iron, with smaller amounts evolving from the removal of carbon from pig iron to produce steel.

Additional CO₂ emissions also occur from the use of limestone or dolomite flux in iron and steel production; however, these emissions are accounted for under Limestone and Dolomite Use.

Emissions of CO₂ from iron and steel production in 1997 were 23.5 MMTCE (86.1 Tg). Emissions fluctuated significantly from 1990 to 1997 due to changes in domestic economic conditions and changes in imports and exports. CO₂ emissions from this source are not included in totals for the Industrial Processes chapter because they are accounted for with Fossil Fuel Combustion emissions from industrial coking coal in the Energy chapter.¹⁰ Emissions estimates are presented here for informational purposes only (see Table 3-16).

Table 3-16: CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	23.9	87.6
1991	19.2	70.6
1992	20.6	75.8
1993	21.0	77.1
1994	21.6	79.0
1995	22.2	81.4
1996	21.6	79.0
1997	23.5	86.1

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of pig iron production by the ratio of CO₂ emitted per unit of iron produced (1.6 metric ton CO₂/ton iron). The emission factor employed was applied to both pig iron production and integrated pig iron plus steel production; therefore, emissions were estimated using total U.S. pig iron production for all uses including making steel.

Data Sources

The emission factor was taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Production data for 1990 through 1996 (see Table 3-17) came from the U.S. Geological Survey's (USGS) *Minerals Yearbook: Volume I-Metals and Minerals* (USGS 1996, 1997); data for 1997 were obtained from USGS (1998).

Table 3-17: Pig Iron Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	54,750
1991	44,100
1992	47,400
1993	48,200
1994	49,400
1995	50,900
1996	49,400
1997	53,800

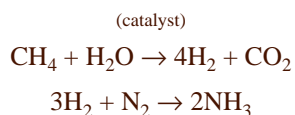
¹⁰ Although the CO₂ emissions from the use of industrial coking coal as a reducing agent should be included in the Industrial Processes sector, information to distinguish individual non-fuel uses of fossil fuels is unfortunately not available in DOE/EIA fuel statistics.

Uncertainty

The emission factor employed was assumed to be applicable to both pig iron production and integrated pig iron plus steel production. This assumption was made because the uncertainty in the factor is greater than the additional emissions generated when steel is produced from pig iron. Using plant-specific emission factors could yield a more accurate estimate, but these factors were not available. The most accurate alternative would be to calculate emissions based on the amount of reducing agent used, rather than on the amount of iron or steel produced; however, these data were also not available.

Ammonia Manufacture

Emissions of CO₂ occur during the production of ammonia. In the United States, roughly 98 percent of synthetic ammonia is produced by catalytic steam reforming of natural gas, and the remainder is produced using naphtha (a petroleum fraction) or the electrolysis of brine at chlorine plants (EPA 1997). The former two fossil fuel-based reactions produce carbon monoxide and hydrogen gas; however, the latter reaction does not lead to CO₂ emissions. Carbon monoxide (CO) in the first two processes is transformed into CO₂ in the presence of a catalyst (usually a metallic oxide). The hydrogen gas is diverted and combined with nitrogen gas to produce ammonia. The CO₂, included in a gas stream with other process impurities, is absorbed by a scrubber solution. In regenerating the scrubber solution, CO₂ is released.



Emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production in 1997 were 7.1 MMTCE (26.1 Tg). Carbon dioxide emissions from this source are not included in totals for the Industrial Processes chapter because these emissions are accounted for with non-energy use of natural gas under Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter.¹¹ Emissions estimates are presented here for informational purposes only (see Table 3-18).

¹¹ Although the CO₂ emissions from the use of natural gas as a feedstock should be included in the Industrial Processes chapter, information to distinguish individual non-fuel uses of fossil fuels is unfortunately not available in DOE/EIA fuel statistics.

Table 3-18: CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Manufacture

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	6.3	23.1
1991	6.4	23.4
1992	6.7	24.4
1993	6.4	23.4
1994	6.6	24.3
1995	6.5	23.7
1996	6.6	24.2
1997	7.1	26.1

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of ammonia production by an emission factor (1.5 ton CO₂/ton ammonia). It was assumed that all ammonia was produced using catalytic steam reformation, although small amounts may have been produced using chlorine brines. The actual amount produced using this latter method is not known, but assumed to be small.

Data Sources

The emission factor was taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Production data (see Table 3-19) came from the Census Bureau of the U.S. Department of Commerce (Census Bureau 1998) as reported in *Chemical and Engineering News*, “Facts & Figures for the Chemical Industry.”

Table 3-19: Ammonia Manufacture

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	15,425
1991	15,576
1992	16,261
1993	15,599
1994	16,211
1995	15,788
1996	16,114
1997	17,415

Uncertainty

It is uncertain how accurately the emission factor used represents an average across all ammonia plants. By using natural gas consumption data for each ammonia plant, more accurate estimates could be calculated. However, these consumption data are often considered confidential and are difficult to acquire. All ammonia production in this analysis was assumed to be from the same process; however, actual emissions could differ because processes other than catalytic steam reformation may have been used.

Ferroalloy Production

Carbon dioxide is emitted from the production of several ferroalloys. Ferroalloys are composites of iron and other elements often including silicon, manganese, and chromium. When incorporated in alloy steels, ferroalloys are used to alter the material properties of the steel. Estimates from two types of ferrosilicon (50 and 75 percent silicon) and silicon metal (about 98 percent silicon) have been calculated. Emissions from the production of ferrochromium and ferromanganese are not included here because of the small number of manufacturers of these materials. As a result, government information disclosure rules prevent the publication of production data for them. Similar to emissions from the production of iron and steel, CO₂ is emitted when metallurgical coke is oxidized during a high-temperature reaction with iron and the selected alloying element. Due to the strong reducing environment, CO is initially produced. The CO is eventually oxidized, becoming CO₂. A representative reaction equation for the production of 50 percent ferrosilicon is given below:



Table 3-20: CO₂ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	0.5	1.8
1991	0.4	1.6
1992	0.4	1.6
1993	0.4	1.5
1994	0.4	1.6
1995	0.4	1.6
1996	0.5	1.7
1997	0.5	1.8

Emissions of CO₂ from ferroalloy production in 1997 were 0.5 MMTCE (1.8 Tg). Carbon dioxide emissions from this source are not included in the totals for the Industrial Processes chapter because these emissions are accounted for in the calculations for industrial coking coal under Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter.¹² Emission estimates are presented here for informational purposes only (see Table 3-20).

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of ferroalloy production by material-specific emission factors. Emission factors were applied to production data for ferrosilicon 50 and 75 percent (2.35 and 3.9 metric ton CO₂/metric ton, respectively) and silicon metal (4.3 metric ton CO₂/metric ton). It was assumed that all ferroalloy production was produced using coking coal, although some ferroalloys may have been produced with wood, other biomass, or graphite carbon inputs.

Data Sources

Emission factors were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Production data for 1990 through 1996 (see Table 3-21) came from the *Minerals Yearbook: Volume I—Metals and Minerals* published in USGS (1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997); data for 1997 were obtained from USGS (1998).

¹² Although the CO₂ emissions from the use of industrial coking coal as a reducing agent should be included in the Industrial Processes chapter, information to distinguish individual non-fuel uses of fossil fuels is unfortunately not available in DOE/EIA fuel statistics.

Table 3-21: Production of Ferroalloys (Metric Tons)

Year	Ferrosilicon 50%	Ferrosilicon 75%	Silicon Metal
1990	321,385	109,566	145,744
1991	230,019	101,549	149,570
1992	238,562	79,976	164,326
1993	199,275	94,437	158,000
1994	198,000	112,000	164,000
1995	181,000	128,000	163,000
1996	182,000	132,000	175,000
1997	175,000	147,000	187,000

Uncertainty

Although some ferroalloys may be produced using wood or other biomass as a carbon source, information and data regarding these practices were not available. Emissions from ferroalloys produced with wood would not be counted under this source because wood-based carbon is of biogenic origin.¹³ Emissions from ferroalloys produced with graphite inputs would be counted in national totals, but may generate differing amounts of CO₂ per unit of ferroalloy produced compared to the use of coking coal. As with emissions from iron and steel production, the most accurate method for these estimates would be basing calculations on the amount of reducing agent used in the process, rather than on the amount of ferroalloys produced. These data were not available, however.

Petrochemical Production

Small amounts of methane (CH₄) are released during the production of some petrochemicals. Emissions are presented here from the production of five chemicals: carbon black, ethylene, ethylene dichloride, styrene, and methanol. Aggregate emissions of CH₄ from petrochemical production in 1997 were 0.4 MMTCE (75 Gg) (see Table 3-22). Production levels of all five chemicals increased from 1990 to 1997.

Table 3-22: CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	0.3	56
1991	0.3	57
1992	0.3	60
1993	0.4	66
1994	0.4	70
1995	0.4	70
1996	0.4	74
1997	0.4	75

Methodology

Emissions of CH₄ were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of chemical production by an emission factor. The following factors were used: 11 kg CH₄/metric ton carbon black, 1 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene, 0.4 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene dichloride¹⁴, 4 kg CH₄/metric ton styrene, and 2 kg CH₄/metric ton methanol. These emission factors were based upon measured material balances. Although the production of other chemicals may also result in methane emissions, there were not sufficient data to estimate their emissions.

Data Sources

Emission factors were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Annual production data (see Table 3-23) came from the Chemical Manufacturers Association *Statistical Handbook* (CMA 1998).

Uncertainty

The emission factors used here were based on a limited number of studies. Using plant-specific factors instead of average factors could increase the accuracy of the emissions estimates, however, such data were not available. There may also be other significant sources of methane arising from petrochemical production activities which have not been included in these estimates.

¹³ Emissions and sinks of biogenic carbon are accounted for in the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

¹⁴ The emission factor obtained from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), page 2.23 is assumed to have a misprint; the chemical identified should be dichloroethylene (C₂H₂Cl₂) instead of ethylene dichloride (C₂H₄Cl₂).

Table 3-23: Production of Selected Petrochemicals (Thousand Metric Tons)

Chemical	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Carbon Black	1,306	1,225	1,365	1,452	1,492	1,524	1,560	1,588
Ethylene	16,542	18,124	18,563	18,714	20,201	19,470	20,990	21,886
Ethylene Dichloride	6,282	6,221	6,872	8,141	8,482	7,831	8,596	9,152
Styrene	3,637	3,681	4,082	4,565	5,112	5,167	5,387	5,171
Methanol	3,785	3,948	3,666	4,782	4,932	5,123	5,262	5,455

Silicon Carbide Production

Methane is emitted from the production of silicon carbide, a material used as an industrial abrasive. To make silicon carbide (SiC), quartz (SiO₂) is reacted with carbon in the form of petroleum coke. Methane is produced during this reaction from volatile compounds in the petroleum coke. Although CO₂ is also emitted from this production process, the requisite data were unavailable for these calculations. Regardless, they are already accounted for under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter. Emissions of CH₄ from silicon carbide production in 1997 (see Table 3-24) were 1 Gg (less than 0.05 MMTCE).

Table 3-24: CH₄ Emissions from Silicon Carbide Production

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	+	1
1991	+	1
1992	+	1
1993	+	1
1994	+	1
1995	+	1
1996	+	1
1997	+	1

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

Methodology

Emissions of CH₄ were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of silicon carbide production by an emission factor (11.6 kg CH₄/metric ton silicon carbide). This emission factor was derived empirically from measurements taken at Norwegian silicon carbide plants (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Data Sources

The emission factor was taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Production data for 1990 through 1997 (see Table 3-25) came from the *Minerals Yearbook: Volume I-Metals and Minerals* published in USGS (1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998).

Table 3-25: Production of Silicon Carbide

Year	Metric Tons
1990	105,000
1991	78,900
1992	84,300
1993	74,900
1994	84,700
1995	75,400
1996	73,600
1997	68,200

Uncertainty

The emission factor used here was based on one study of Norwegian plants. The applicability of this factor to average U.S. practices at silicon carbide plants is uncertain. A better alternative would be to calculate emissions based on the quantity of petroleum coke used during the production process rather than on the amount of silicon carbide produced. These data were not available, however.

Adipic Acid Production

Adipic acid production has been identified as a significant anthropogenic source of nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions. Adipic acid is a white crystalline solid used in the manufacture of synthetic fibers, coatings, plastics, urethane foams, elastomers, and synthetic lubricants.

Commercially, it is the most important of the aliphatic dicarboxylic acids, which are used to manufacture polyesters. Ninety percent of all adipic acid produced in the United States is used in the production of nylon 6,6. It is also used to provide some foods with a “tangy” flavor.

Adipic acid is produced through a two-stage process during which N₂O is generated in the second stage. This second stage involves the oxidation of a ketone-alcohol with nitric acid. Nitrous oxide is generated as a by-product of this reaction and is emitted in the waste gas stream. In the United States, this waste gas is treated to remove nitrogen oxides (NO_x), other regulated pollutants, and in some cases N₂O. There are currently four plants in the United States that produce adipic acid. Since 1990, two of these plants have employed emission control measures destroying roughly 98 percent of the N₂O in their waste gas stream before it is released to the atmosphere (Radian 1992). During 1997, a third plant installed comparable N₂O emission controls that operated for approximately a quarter of the year.

Adipic acid production for 1997 was estimated to be 860 thousand metric tons. Nitrous oxide emissions from this source were estimated to be 3.9 MMTCE (46 Gg) in 1997 (see Table 3-26).

Table 3-26: N₂O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	4.7	56
1991	4.9	58
1992	4.6	54
1993	4.9	58
1994	5.2	62
1995	5.2	62
1996	5.4	63
1997	3.9	46

Adipic acid production reached its highest level in thirteen years in 1997, growing about 3 percent from the previous year. Though production continues to increase, emissions have been significantly reduced, due to the widespread installation of pollution control measures mentioned above.

Methodology

Nitrous oxide emissions were calculated by multiplying adipic acid production by the ratio of N₂O emitted per unit of adipic acid produced and adjusting for the actual percentage of N₂O released as a result of plant-specific emission controls. Because emissions of N₂O in the United States are not regulated, emissions have not been well characterized. However, on the basis of experiments (Thiemens and Trogler 1991), the overall reaction stoichiometry for N₂O production in the preparation of adipic acid was estimated at approximately 0.3 kg of N₂O per kilogram of product.

Data Sources

Adipic acid production data for 1990 through 1995 (see Table 3-27) were obtained from *Chemical and Engineering News*, “Facts and Figures” and “Production of Top 50 Chemicals” (C&EN 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996). The 1996 and 1997 data were projected from the 1995 manufactured total based upon suggestions from industry contacts. The emission factor was taken from Thiemens, M.H. and W.C. Trogler (1991). Adipic acid plant capacities were obtained from *Chemical Market Reporter* (June 15, 1998).

Table 3-27: Adipic Acid Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	735
1991	771
1992	708
1993	765
1994	815
1995	816
1996	835
1997	860

Uncertainty

Because N₂O emissions are controlled in some adipic acid production facilities, the amount of N₂O that is actually released will depend on the level of controls in place at a specific production plant. Thus, in order to calculate accurate emission estimates, it is necessary to have production data on a plant-specific basis. In most

cases, however, these data are confidential. As a result, plant-specific production figures were estimated by allocating total adipic acid production using existing plant capacities. This creates a degree of uncertainty in the adipic acid production data used to derive the emission estimates as it is necessary to assume that all plants operate at equivalent utilization levels.

The emission factor was based on experiments (Thiemens and Trogler 1991) that attempt to replicate the industrial process and, thereby, measure the reaction stoichiometry for N₂O production in the preparation of adipic acid. However, the extent to which the lab results are representative of actual industrial emission rates is not known.

Nitric Acid Production

Nitric acid (HNO₃) is an inorganic compound used primarily to make synthetic commercial fertilizers. It is also a major component in the production of adipic acid—a feedstock for nylon—and explosives. Virtually all of the nitric acid produced in the United States is manufactured by the catalytic oxidation of ammonia (EPA 1997). During this reaction, N₂O is formed as a by-product and is released from reactor vents into the atmosphere. While the waste gas stream may be cleaned of other pollutants such as nitrogen dioxide, there are currently no control measures aimed at eliminating N₂O.

Nitric acid production reached 8,232 thousand metric tons in 1997 (C&EN 1998). Nitrous oxide emissions from this source were estimated at 3.8 MMTCE (45 Gg) (see Table 3-28). Nitric acid production for 1997 decreased 1 percent from the previous year, but has increased 13 percent since 1990.

Table 3-28: N₂O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	3.4	40
1991	3.3	40
1992	3.4	40
1993	3.5	41
1994	3.7	43
1995	3.7	44
1996	3.9	46
1997	3.8	45

Methodology

Nitrous oxide emissions were calculated by multiplying nitric acid production by the amount of N₂O emitted per unit of nitric acid produced. Off-gas measurements at one nitric acid production facility showed N₂O emission rates to be approximately 2 to 9 g N₂O per kg of nitric acid produced (Reimer et al. 1992). In calculating emissions, the midpoint of this range was used (5.5 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃).

Data Sources

Nitric acid production data for 1990 through 1997 (see Table 3-29) were obtained from *Chemical and Engineering News*, “Facts and Figures” (C&EN 1998). The emission factor range was taken from Reimer, R.A., Parrett, R.A., and Slaten, C.S. (1992).

Table 3-29: Nitric Acid Production

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	7,196
1991	7,191
1992	7,381
1993	7,488
1994	8,005
1995	8,020
1996	8,351
1997	8,232

Uncertainty

These emission estimates are highly uncertain due to a lack of information on manufacturing processes and emission controls. Although no abatement techniques are specifically directed at removing N₂O at nitric acid plants, existing control measures for other pollutants may have some impact upon N₂O emissions. The emission factor range of 2 to 9 g N₂O per kg of nitric acid produced is significant, leading to further uncertainty when applying the midpoint value.

Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are used primarily as alternatives to several classes of ozone-depleting substances (ODSs) that are being phased out under the terms of the *Montreal Protocol* and the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990¹⁵. Ozone depleting substances—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)—are used in a variety of industrial applications including refrigeration and air conditioning equipment, solvent cleaning, foam production,

sterilization, fire extinguishing, and aerosols. Although HFCs and PFCs, unlike ODSs, are not harmful to the stratospheric ozone layer, they are powerful greenhouse gases. Emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs used as substitutes for ODSs are provided in Table 3-30 and Table 3-31.

In 1990 and 1991, the only significant emissions of HFCs and PFCs as substitutes to ODSs were relatively small amounts of HFC-152a—a component of the refrigerant blend R-500 used in chillers—and HFC-134a in refrigeration end-uses. Beginning in 1992, HFC-134a was used in growing amounts as a refrigerant in motor vehicle air conditioners and in refrigerant blends such as R-404¹⁶. In 1993, use of HFCs in foams and aerosols

Table 3-30: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitution (MMTCE)

Gas	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
HFC-23	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1	0.1
HFC-125	+	+	0.2	0.4	1.2	2.2	2.4	2.7
HFC-134a	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.0	1.9	3.4	4.8	6.4
HFC-143a	+	+	+	+	+	0.1	0.2	0.4
HFC-236fa	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1	0.3
HFC-4310mee	+	+	+	+	+	0.2	0.4	0.5
C ₄ F ₁₀	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1	0.2
C ₆ F ₁₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Others*	0.1	+	+	+	0.8	3.5	3.7	4.0
Total	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.4	4.0	9.5	11.9	14.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, and PFC/PFPEs, which are a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications. For estimating purposes, the GWP value used for PFC/PFPEs was based upon C₆F₁₄.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-31: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitution (Mg)

Gas	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
HFC-23	+	+	+	+	+	9	26	43
HFC-125	+	+	236	481	1,628	2,823	3,172	3,572
HFC-134a	564	564	626	2,885	5,410	9,553	13,605	17,960
HFC-143a	+	+	+	12	43	94	226	427
HFC-236fa	+	+	+	+	+	+	79	175
HFC-4310mee	+	+	+	+	+	611	1,030	1,479
C ₄ F ₁₀	+	+	+	+	+	22	64	105
C ₆ F ₁₄	+	+	+	+	+	2	6	12
Others*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

- Not applicable

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Mg

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, and PFC/PFPEs, which are a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications.

¹⁵ [42 U.S.C § 7671, CAA § 601]

¹⁶ R-404 contains HFC-125, HFC-143a, and HFC-134a.

began, and in 1994 these compounds also found applications as solvents and sterilants. In 1995, ODS substitutes for halons entered widespread use in the United States as halon production was phased-out.

The use and subsequent emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes increased dramatically, from small amounts in 1990, to 14.7 MMTCE in 1997. This increase was the result of efforts to phase-out CFCs and other ODSs in the United States. This trend is expected to continue for many years, and will accelerate in the early part of the next century as HCFCs, which are interim substitutes in many applications, are themselves phased-out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol*.

Methodology and Data Sources

The EPA used a detailed vintaging model of ODS-containing equipment and products to estimate the actual—versus potential—emissions of various ODS substitutes, including HFCs and PFCs. The name of the model refers to the fact that the model tracks the use and emissions of various compounds for the annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter service in each end-use. This vintaging model predicts ODS and ODS substitute use in the United States based on modeled estimates of the quantity of equipment or products sold each year containing these chemicals and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain equipment and products over time. Emissions for each end-use were estimated by applying annual leak rates and release profiles, which account for the lag in emissions from equipment as they leak over time. By aggregating the data for more than 40 different end-uses, the model produces estimates of annual use and emissions of each compound.

The major end-use categories defined in the vintaging model to characterize ODS use in the United States were: refrigeration and air conditioning, aerosols, solvent cleaning, fire extinguishing equipment, sterilization, and foams.

The vintaging model estimates HFC and PFC use and emissions resulting from their use as replacements for ODSs by undertaking the following steps:

Step 1: Estimate ODS Use in the United States Prior to Phase-out Regulations

The model begins by estimating CFC, halon, methyl chloroform, and carbon tetrachloride use prior to the restrictions on the production of these compounds in the United States. For modeling purposes, total ODS use was divided into more than 40 separate end-uses. The methodology used to estimate baseline ODS use varied depending on the end-use under consideration. The next section describes the methodology used for estimating baseline ODS use in the refrigeration, air conditioning, and fire extinguishing (halon) end-uses. The subsequent section details the methodology used for all other end-uses.

Step 1.1: Estimate Baseline ODS Use for Refrigeration, Air Conditioning, and Fire Extinguishing

For each equipment type, the model estimates the total stock of ODS-containing equipment during the period 1985 to 1997. The key data required to develop stock estimates for each end-use were as follows:

- Total stock of ODS-containing equipment in use in the United States in 1985
- The annual rate of growth in equipment consumption in each end-use
- The retirement function for equipment in each end-use

Historical production and consumption data were collected for each equipment type to develop estimates of total equipment stock in 1985. For some end-uses, the only data available were estimates of ODS usage. In these cases, the total 1985 stock was estimated by dividing total ODS use by the average charge of ODS in a typical piece of equipment.

Stocks of ODS-containing equipment change over time. In the vintaging model, the growth in equipment stocks in each end-use was simulated after 1985 using growth rates that define the total number of pieces of new equipment added to the stock each year. The model also uses a retirement function to calculate the length of time each piece of equipment is expected to remain in service. These retirement functions are a critical part of the vintaging model because they determine the speed at which the stock of equipment turns over and is replaced by new equipment. In this analysis, point estimates of

the average lifetime of equipment in each end-use were used to develop retirement functions. These retirement functions assume 100 percent survival of equipment up to this average age and zero percent survival thereafter.

Given these data, the total equipment stock in service in a given year t was estimated as the equipment stock in the year $(t-1)$, plus new equipment added to the stock in year t , minus retirements in year t .

Annual ODS use was then estimated for each equipment type during the period 1985 through 1997. Because control technologies can reduce particular kinds of ODS use, use estimates were broken down by type of use (e.g., use in new equipment at manufacture and use required to maintain existing equipment). Baseline estimates of ODS use were based on the following data collected for each equipment type:

- ODS charge size (the number of kilograms of ODS installed in new equipment during manufacture)
- ODS required to maintain existing equipment (In many end-uses, chemical must be regularly added to equipment to replace chemical emitted from the equipment. Such emissions result from normal leakage and from loss during servicing of the equipment.)

With these data, ODS usage for each refrigeration, air conditioning, and fire extinguishing end-use was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{(Total stock of existing equipment in use)} \times \text{(ODS required to maintain each unit of existing equipment)} + \text{(New equipment additions)} \times \text{(ODS charge size)}$$

Step 1.2: Estimate Baseline ODS Use in Foams, Solvents, Sterilization, and Aerosol End-Uses

For end-uses other than refrigeration, air conditioning, and fire extinguishing, a simpler approach was used because these end-uses do not require partial re-filling of existing equipment each year. Instead, such equipment either does not require any ODS after initial production (e.g., foams and aerosols), or requires complete re-filling or re-manufacturing of the equipment each year (e.g., solvents and sterilants). ODS use does not need to be differentiated between new and existing equipment for these end-uses. Thus, it is not necessary to track the stocks of new and existing equipment separately over time.

The approach used for these end-uses was to estimate total ODS use in 1985 based on available industry data. Future ODS use was estimated using growth rates that predict ODS consumption growth in these end-uses over time, based upon input from industry.

Step 2: Specification and Implementation of Control Technologies

Having established a baseline for ODS equipment in 1985, the vintaging model next defines controls that may be undertaken for purposes of reducing ODS use and emissions within each end-use. The following controls were implemented in the model:

- Replacement of ODS used in the manufacturing of new equipment or in the operation of existing equipment (i.e., retrofits) with alternative chemicals, such as HFCs and PFCs
- Replacement of ODS-based processes or products with alternative processes or products (e.g., the use of aqueous cleaning to replace solvent cleaning with CFC-113)
- Modification of the operation and servicing of equipment to reduce use and emission rates through the application of engineering and recycling controls

Assumptions addressing these types of controls in each end-use were used to develop “substitution scenarios” that simulate the phase-out of ODSs in the United States by end-use. These scenarios represent EPA’s best estimates of the use of control technologies towards the phase-out ODS in the United States, and are periodically reviewed by industry experts.

In addition to the chemical substitution scenarios, the model also assumes that a portion of ODS substitutes are recycled during servicing and retirement of the equipment. Recycling is assumed to occur in the refrigeration and air conditioning, fire extinguishing, and solvent end-uses.

The substitution scenarios defined for each equipment type were applied to the relevant equipment stocks. The equipment life-cycle was then simulated after the imposition of controls. Substitute chemical use and emissions—including HFCs and PFCs—were calculated for each scenario using the methods described below.

Step 3: Estimate ODS Substitute Use and Emissions (HFCs and PFCs)

ODS substitute use (i.e., HFC and PFC use) was calculated using the same routine described above for refrigeration, air conditioning, and fire extinguishing equipment. In terms of chemical usage, a key question was whether implementation of a given ODS substitute in an end-use changed the quantity of chemical required to manufacture new equipment or service existing equipment. In this analysis, it was assumed that the use of ODS alternatives in new equipment—including HFCs and PFCs—did not change the total charge of initial chemical used in the equipment in each end-use. For certain refrigeration and air conditioning end-uses, however, it was assumed that new equipment manufactured with HFCs and PFCs would have lower leak rates than older equipment. Existing ODS-containing equipment that was retrofitted with HFCs or PFCs was assumed to have a higher leak rate than new HFC/PFC equipment.

The use of HFCs and PFCs in all other end-uses was calculated by simply replacing ODS use with the chemical alternatives defined in the substitution scenarios. The use of HFCs and PFCs was not assumed to change the quantity of chemical used in new or existing equipment for these end-uses.

The vintaging model estimates HFC and PFC emissions over the lifetime of equipment in each end-use. Emissions may occur at the following points in the lifetime of the equipment:

- Emissions upon manufacture of equipment
- Annual emissions from equipment (due to normal leakage, and if applicable, servicing of equipment)
- Emissions upon retirement of equipment

The emissions that occur upon manufacture of refrigeration and air conditioning equipment were assumed to be less than 0.1 percent. Annual emissions of HFCs and PFCs from equipment—due to normal leakage and servicing—were assumed to be constant each year over the life of the equipment. The quantity of emissions at disposal is a function of the prevalence of recycling at disposal.

Emissions for open cell foam were assumed to be 100 percent in the year of manufacture. Closed cell foams were assumed to emit a portion of total HFC/PFC use upon manufacture, a portion at a constant rate over the

lifetime of the foam, and the rest at disposal. There were no foam recycling technologies in use in the United States; therefore, HFCs and PFCs remaining in closed cell foam were assumed to be emitted by the end of the product lifetime.

Emissions were assumed to occur at manufacture, during normal operation, and upon retirement of fire extinguishing systems. Emissions at manufacture were assumed to be negligible and emissions upon disposal were assumed to be minimal because of the use of recovery technologies.

For solvent applications, 15 percent of the chemical used in equipment was assumed to be emitted in that year. The remainder of the used solvent was assumed to be disposed rather than emitted or recycled.

For sterilization applications, all chemicals that were used in the equipment were assumed to be emitted in that year.

All HFCs and PFCs used in aerosols were assumed to be emitted in the same year. No technologies were known to exist that recycle or recover aerosols.

Uncertainty

Given that emissions of ODS substitutes occur from thousands of different kinds of equipment and from millions of point and mobile sources throughout the United States, emission estimates must be made using analytical tools such as the EPA vintaging model or the methods outlined in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997). Though EPA's model is more comprehensive than the IPCC methodology, significant uncertainties still exist with regard to the levels of equipment sales, equipment characteristics, and end-use emissions profiles that were used to estimate annual emissions for the various compounds.

Aluminum Production

Aluminum is a light-weight, malleable, and corrosion resistant metal that is used in many manufactured products including aircraft, automobiles, bicycles, and kitchen utensils. The United States was the largest producer of primary aluminum with 17 percent of the world total in 1997 (USGS 1998). The United States was also a

major importer of primary aluminum. The production of primary aluminum—in addition to consuming large quantities of electricity—results in emissions of several greenhouse gases including carbon dioxide (CO₂) and two perfluorocarbons (PFCs): perfluoromethane (CF₄) and perfluoroethane (C₂F₆).

Occasionally, sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is also used by the aluminum industry as a fluxing and degassing agent in experimental and specialized casting operations. In these cases it is normally mixed with argon, nitrogen, and/or chlorine and blown through molten aluminum; however, this practice is not used by primary aluminum production firms in the United States and is not believed to be extensively used by secondary casting firms. Where it does occur, the concentration of SF₆ in the mixture is small and a portion of the SF₆ is decomposed in the process (Waite and Bernard 1990, Corns 1990). It has been estimated that 230 Mg of SF₆ were used by the aluminum industry in the United States and Canada (Maiss and Brenninkmeijer 1998); however, this estimate is highly uncertain. Emissions of SF₆ have not been estimated for this source.

Carbon dioxide is emitted during the aluminum smelting process when alumina (aluminum oxide, Al₂O₃) is reduced to aluminum using the Hall-Heroult reduction process. The reduction of the alumina occurs through electrolysis in a molten bath of natural or synthetic cryolite (Na₃AlF₆). The reduction cells contain a carbon lining that serves as the cathode. Carbon is also contained in the anode, which can be a carbon mass of paste, coke briquettes, or prebaked carbon blocks from petroleum coke. During reduction, some of this carbon is oxidized and released to the atmosphere as CO₂.

Process emissions of CO₂ from aluminum production were estimated at 1.4 MMTCE (5.3 Tg) in 1997 (see Table 3-32). The CO₂ emissions from this source, however, are accounted for under the non-fuel use portion of CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion of petroleum coke and tar pitch in the Energy chapter. Thus, to avoid double counting, CO₂ emissions from aluminum production are not included in totals for the Industrial Processes chapter. They are provided here for informational purposes only.

In addition to CO₂ emissions, the aluminum production industry was also the largest source of PFC emissions in the United States. During the smelting process, when the alumina ore content of the electrolytic bath falls below critical levels required for electrolysis, rapid voltage increases occur, termed “anode effects”. These anode effects cause carbon from the anode and fluorine from the dissociated molten cryolite bath to combine, thereby producing fugitive emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆. In general, the magnitude of emissions for a given level of production depends on the frequency and duration of these anode effects. The more frequent and long-lasting the anode effects, the greater the emissions.

Primary aluminum production-related emissions of PFCs are estimated to have declined 41 percent since 1990 to 2.5 MMTCE of CF₄ (1,430 Mg) and 0.4 MMTCE of C₂F₆ (140 Mg) in 1997, as shown in Table 3-33 and Table 3-34. This decline was both due to reductions in domestic aluminum production and actions taken by aluminum smelting companies to reduce the frequency and duration of anode effects under EPA’s Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership (VAIP).

Table 3-32: CO₂ Emissions from Aluminum Production

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	1.6	6.0
1991	1.7	6.1
1992	1.6	5.9
1993	1.5	5.4
1994	1.3	4.8
1995	1.4	5.0
1996	1.4	5.3
1997	1.4	5.3

Table 3-33: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (MMTCE)

Year	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆	Total
1990	4.3	0.6	4.9
1991	4.1	0.6	4.7
1992	3.6	0.5	4.1
1993	3.1	0.4	3.5
1994	2.5	0.4	2.8
1995	2.4	0.3	2.7
1996	2.5	0.4	2.9
1997	2.5	0.4	2.9

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-34: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Mg)

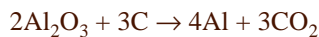
Year	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆
1990	2,430	240
1991	2,330	230
1992	2,020	200
1993	1,750	170
1994	1,400	140
1995	1,330	130
1996	1,430	140
1997	1,430	140

U.S. primary aluminum production for 1997, totaling 3,603 thousand metric tons, increased only slightly from 1996. Changes in U.S. primary aluminum production are due in part to imports, mainly from Russia and other republics of the Former Soviet Union. For example, in 1994 these countries exported 60 percent more ingots (metal cast for easy transformation) to the United States than in 1993, leading to a significant decline in domestic production. However, imports from Russia have declined from their peak level in 1994 (USGS 1998).

The transportation industry remained the largest domestic consumer of aluminum, accounting for about 29 percent (USGS 1998). The “big three” automakers have announced new automotive designs that will expand the use of aluminum materials in the near future. The U.S. Geological Survey believes that demand for and production of aluminum will continue to increase.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide is generated during alumina reduction to aluminum metal following the reaction below:



The quantity of CO₂ released was estimated from the production of primary aluminum metal and the carbon consumed by the process. During alumina reduction, approximately 1.5 to 2.2 metric tons of CO₂ are emitted for each metric ton of aluminum produced (Abrahamson 1992). In previous inventories, the midpoint (1.85) of this range was used for the emission factor. However, for this year’s report—and adjusting ear-

lier years—the emission factor was revised to 1.5 metric tons CO₂ per metric ton of aluminum smelted based on a mass balance for a “typical” aluminum smelter (Drexel University Project Team 1996). This value is at the low end of the Abrahamson (1992) range.

The CO₂ emissions from this source are already accounted for under CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter.¹⁷ Thus, to avoid double counting, CO₂ emissions from aluminum production are not included in totals for the Industrial Processes chapter.

PFC emissions from aluminum production were estimated using a per unit production emission factor for the base year 1990. The emission factor used is a function of several operating variables including average anode effect frequency and duration. Total annual emissions for 1990 were then calculated based on reported annual production levels. The five components of the per unit production emission factor are:

- Amount of CF₄ and C₂F₆ emitted during every minute of an anode effect, per ampere of current
- Average duration of anode effects
- Average frequency of anode effects
- Current efficiency for aluminum smelting
- Current required to produce a metric ton of aluminum, assuming 100 percent efficiency

Using available data for the United States, this methodology yields a range in the emission factor of 0.01 to 1.2 kg CF₄ per metric ton of aluminum produced in 1990 (Jacobs 1994). The emission factor for C₂F₆ was estimated to be approximately an order of magnitude lower. Emissions for 1991 through 1996 were estimated with emission factors that incorporated data on reductions in anode effects reported to the VAIP by aluminum companies.

Data Sources

Primary aluminum production data for 1990 through 1997 (see Table 3-35) were obtained from USGS, *Mineral Industry Surveys: Aluminum Annual Report* (USGS 1998, 1995). The USGS requested data from the 13 domestic producers, all of whom responded. The CO₂ emission factor

¹⁷ Although the carbon contained in the anode is considered a non-fuel use of petroleum coke or tar pitch and should be included in the Industrial Processes chapter, information to distinguish individual non-fuel uses of fossil fuels is unfortunately not available in DOE/EIA fuel statistics.

range was taken from Abrahamson (1992). The mass balance for a “typical” aluminum smelter was taken from Drexel University Project Team (1996).

PFC emission estimates were provided by the EPA’s Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Division in cooperation with participants in the Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership (VAIP).

Table 3-35: Production of Primary Aluminum

Year	Thousand Metric Tons
1990	4,048
1991	4,121
1992	4,042
1993	3,695
1994	3,299
1995	3,375
1996	3,577
1997	3,603

Uncertainty

Uncertainty exists as to the most accurate CO₂ emission factor for aluminum production. Emissions vary depending on the specific technology used by each plant. However, evidence suggests that there is little variation in CO₂ emissions from plants utilizing similar technologies (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). A less uncertain method would be to calculate emissions based upon the amount of carbon—in the form of petroleum coke or tar pitch—consumed by the process; however, this type of information was not available.

For PFC emission estimates, the value for emissions per anode effect minute per ampere was based on a limited number of measurements that may not be representative of the industry as a whole (EPA 1993). For example, the emission factor may vary by smelter technology type, among other factors. The average frequency of anode effects and the current efficiency are well documented; however, insufficient measurement data existed to quantify a relationship between PFC emissions and anode effect minutes. Future inventories will incorporate additional data reported to VAIP by aluminum companies and ongoing research into PFC emissions from aluminum production.

Emissions of SF₆ from aluminum fluxing and degassing have not been estimated. Uncertainties exist as to the quantity of SF₆ used by the aluminum industry and its rate of destruction as it is blown through molten aluminum.

HCFC-22 Production

Trifluoromethane (HFC-23 or CHF₃) is generated as a by-product during the manufacturing of chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22), which is primarily employed as a substitute for ozone depleting substances—mainly in refrigeration and air conditioning systems—and as a chemical feedstock for manufacturing synthetic polymers. Because of its stratospheric ozone depleting properties, HCFC-22 production for non-feedstock uses is scheduled to be phased out by 2020 under the U.S. Clean Air Act.¹⁸ Feedstock production, in contrast, is permitted to continue indefinitely.

HCFC-22 is produced by the reaction of chloroform (CHCl₃) and hydrogen fluoride (HF) in the presence of a catalyst, SbCl₅. The reaction of the catalyst and HF produces SbCl_xF_y, (where x + y = 5), which reacts with the chlorinated hydrocarbons to replace chlorine atoms with fluorine. The HF and chloroform are introduced by submerged piping into a continuous-flow reactor that contains the catalyst in a hydrocarbon mixture of chloroform and partially fluorinated intermediates. The vapors leaving the reactor contain HCFC-21 (CHCl₂F), HCFC-22 (CHClF₂), HFC-23 (CHF₃), HCl, chloroform, and HF. The under-fluorinated intermediates (HCFC-21) and chloroform are then condensed and returned to the reactor, along with residual catalyst, to undergo further fluorination. The final vapors leaving the condenser are primarily HCFC-22, HFC-23, HCl and residual HF. HCl is recovered as a useful byproduct, and the HF is removed. Once separated from HCFC-22, the HFC-23 is generally vented to the atmosphere as an unwanted by-product, or may be captured for use in a limited number of applications.

Emissions of HFC-23 in 1997 were estimated to be 8.2 MMTCE (2,570 Mg). This represents a 14 percent decline from emissions in 1990 (see Table 3-36).

¹⁸ As construed, interpreted and applied in the terms and conditions of the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. [42 U.S.C. §7671m(b), CAA §614]

In the future, production of HCFC-22 in the United States is expected to increase initially and then decline as non-feedstock HCFCs production is phased-out; feedstock production is anticipated to continue growing steadily, mainly for manufacturing Teflon® and other chemical products. All U.S. producers of HCFC-22 are participating in a voluntary program with the EPA to reduce HFC-23 emissions.

Table 3-36: HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	9.5	3.0
1991	8.4	2.6
1992	9.5	3.0
1993	8.7	2.7
1994	8.6	2.7
1995	7.4	2.3
1996	8.5	2.7
1997	8.2	2.6

Methodology

EPA studied the conditions of HFC-23 generation, methods for measuring emissions, and technologies for emissions control. This effort was undertaken in cooperation with the manufacturers of HCFC-22.

Earlier emission estimates assumed that HFC-23 emissions were between 2 and 4 percent of HCFC-22 production on a mass ratio basis. The methodology employed for this report was based upon measurements of critical feed components at individual HCFC-22 production plants. Individual producers also measured HFC-23 concentrations in the process stream by gas chromatography. Using measurements of feed components and HFC-23 concentrations in process streams, the amount of HFC-23 generated was estimated. HFC-23 concentrations were determined at the point the gas leaves the chemical reactor; therefore, estimates also include fugitive emissions.

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by the EPA's Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Division in cooperation with the U.S. manufacturers of HCFC-22.

Uncertainty

A high level of confidence has been attributed to the HFC-23 concentration data employed because measurements were conducted frequently and accounted for day-to-day and process variability. It is estimated that the emissions reported are within 20 percent of the true value. This methodology allowed for determination of reductions in HFC-23 emissions during a period of increasing HCFC-22 production. The use of a constant emission factor would not have allowed for such an assessment. By 1996, the rate of HFC-23 generated as a percent of HCFC-22 produced dropped, on average, below 2 percent in the United States.

Semiconductor Manufacture

The semiconductor industry uses multiple long-lived fluorinated gases in plasma etching and chemical vapor deposition (CVD) processes. The gases most commonly employed are trifluoromethane (HFC-23), perfluoromethane (CF₄), perfluoroethane (C₂F₆), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), although other compounds such as nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃) and perfluoropropane (C₃F₈) and perfluorocyclobutane (c-C₄F₈) are also used. The exact combination of compounds is specific to the process employed.

Plasma etching is performed to provide pathways for the conducting material to connect individual circuit components in the silicon, using HFCs, PFCs, SF₆ and other gases in plasma. The etching process creates fluorine atoms that react at the semiconductor surface according to prescribed patterns to selectively remove substrate material. A single semiconductor wafer may require as many as 100 distinct process steps that utilize these gases. Chemical vapor deposition chambers, used for depositing materials that will act as insulators and wires, are cleaned periodically using PFCs and other gases. During the cleaning cycle the gas is converted to HF in plasma, which etches away residual material from chamber walls, electrodes, and chamber hardware. The majority of the gas flowing into the chamber flows unreacted through the chamber and, without recovery systems, is emitted into the atmosphere.

In addition to being directly used in the manufacturing processes, these gases can also be transformed during the process into a different HFC or PFC compound, which is then exhausted into the atmosphere. For example, when either CHF₃ or C₂F₆ is used in cleaning or etching, CF₄ is often generated and emitted as a process by-product.

For 1997, it was estimated that total weighted emissions of all greenhouse gases by the U.S. semiconductor industry were 1.3 MMTCE. These gases were not widely used in 1990, hence, emissions in 1990 were estimated to be only 0.2 MMTCE. Combined emissions of all gases are presented in Table 3-37 below. It is expected that the rapid growth of this industry and the increasing complexity of microchips will increase emissions in the future.

Table 3-37: PFC Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture

Year	MMTCE*
1990	0.2
1991	0.4
1992	0.6
1993	0.8
1994	1.0
1995	1.2
1996	1.4
1997	1.3

* Combined radiative forcing effect of all gases

Methodology

An estimate of emissions was developed based on the approximate sales of the four main gases (HFC-23, CF₄, C₂F₆, and SF₆) to semiconductor firms. Estimates were confirmed with data reported to the EPA by a subset of firms in the industry who have engaged in voluntary monitoring efforts. Further study of gas emission rates is also underway.

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by the EPA's Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Division in cooperation with the U.S. semiconductor industry.

Uncertainty

Emission estimates for this source are believed to be highly uncertain due to the lack of detailed gas consumption data and the complex chemical reactions involved in the processes used. For example, in the etching process the gas molecules are disrupted by a plasma into varied recombinant formulations specific to each tool and operation. Therefore, a portion of the gases consumed may be destroyed or transmuted into other gases. Because of these uncertainties, unweighted emissions by gas are not presented.

Another greenhouse gas, NF₃, has not been evaluated by the IPCC and was not included in this inventory of greenhouse gas emissions. It has been estimated that the atmospheric lifetime of NF₃, before it undergoes photodissociation in the stratosphere, is about 700 years, resulting in a 100 year global warming potential (GWP) value of approximately 8,000 (Molina, Wooldridge, and Molina 1995). As the understanding of the emission characteristics of this gas improves, NF₃ will be included in future inventories.

Electrical Transmission and Distribution

The largest use for sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), both domestically and internationally, is as an electrical insulator in equipment that transmits and distributes electricity. It has been estimated that 30 percent of the worldwide use of SF₆ is leaked from electrical transmission and distribution equipment (Maiss and Brenninkmeijer 1998). The gas has been employed by the electric power industry in the United States since the 1950s because of its dielectric strength and arc-quenching characteristics. It is used in gas-insulated substations, circuit breakers, and other switchgear. Sulfur hexafluoride has replaced flammable insulating oils in many applications and allows for more compact substations in dense urban areas.

Fugitive emissions of SF₆ can escape from gas-insulated substations and switchgear through seals, especially from older equipment. It can also be released dur-

ing equipment installation and when equipment is opened for servicing, which typically occurs every few years. In the past, some utilities vented SF₆ to the atmosphere during servicing; however, it is believed that increased awareness and the relatively high cost of the gas have reduced this practice.

Emissions of SF₆ from electrical transmission and distribution systems were estimated to be 7.0 MMTCE (1,020 Mg) in 1997. This quantity amounts to a 25 percent increase over the estimate for 1990 (see Table 3-38).

Table 3-38: SF₆ Emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution

Year	MMTCE	Mg
1990	5.6	859
1991	5.9	902
1992	6.2	945
1993	6.4	988
1994	6.7	1,031
1995	7.0	1,074
1996	7.0	1,074
1997	7.0	1,074

Methodology

The EPA developed its methodology for estimating SF₆ emissions from electrical transmission and distribution systems in 1994. The method estimates actual emissions of SF₆ using a top-down, or production-based approach. Specifically, emissions were calculated based upon the following factors: 1) the estimated U.S. production capacity for SF₆, 2) the estimated utilization of this production capacity, 3) the fraction of U.S. SF₆ production estimated to be sold annually for use in electrical equipment, and 4) the fraction of these sales estimated to replace emitted gas.

Based on information gathered from chemical manufacturers, the EPA estimated in 1994 that U.S. production capacity for SF₆ was 3.0 thousand metric tons. It was assumed that plants were operating at 90 percent capacity, which was consistent with industry averages and implied that 2.7 thousand metric tons of SF₆ were produced in 1994. The EPA further assumed that 75 percent of U.S. SF₆ sales were made to electric utilities and

electrical transmission and distribution equipment manufacturers. This assumption is consistent with the estimate given in Ko, et al. (1993) that worldwide, 80 percent of SF₆ sales is for electrical transmission and distribution systems. Seventy-five percent of annual U.S. production in 1994 was 2.0 thousand metric tons.

Finally, the EPA assumed that approximately 50 percent of this production, or 1.0 thousand metric tons, replaced gas emitted into the atmosphere in 1994. This amount is equivalent to 6.5 MMTCE. The EPA's estimate was based on information that emissions rates from this equipment were significant and atmospheric measurements that indicated that most of the SF₆ produced internationally since the 1950s had been released. Emissions from electrical equipment were known to occur from the service and disposal of the equipment and leaks during operation. Leaks from older equipment were reported to release up to 50 percent of the equipment's charge per year, although leaks from newer equipment were reported to release considerably less (e.g., under 1 percent of the charge per year).

It was assumed that emissions have remained constant at 7 MMTCE since 1994.

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by the EPA's Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Division in cooperation with U.S. electric utilities and chemical producers.

Uncertainty

There is currently little verifiable data for estimating SF₆ emissions from electrical transmission and distribution systems. Neither U.S. gas consumption nor emission monitoring data were available when these estimates were developed. The EPA has recently launched a voluntary program with electrical power systems to reduce emissions of SF₆ from equipment used to transmit and distribute electricity such as high voltage circuit breakers, substations, transformers, and transmission lines. The EPA anticipates that better information on SF₆ emissions from electrical equipment will be provided through its voluntary agreements with electrical utilities that use SF₆ in equipment.

Magnesium Production and Processing

The magnesium metal production and casting industry uses sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6) as a covergas to prevent the violent oxidation of molten magnesium in the presence of air. Small concentrations of SF_6 in combination with carbon dioxide and/or air are blown over the molten magnesium metal to induce and stabilize the formation of a protective crust. A minute portion of the SF_6 applied reacts with the magnesium to form a thin molecular film of mostly magnesium oxide and some magnesium fluoride. No significant conversion or destruction of SF_6 occurs in the magnesium casting processes, and it is currently assumed that all SF_6 is emitted to the atmosphere. The industry adopted the use of SF_6 to replace salt fluxes, sulfur dioxide (SO_2), and boron trifluoride (BF_3), which are toxic and more corrosive at higher concentrations. The SF_6 technique is used by producers of primary magnesium metal and most magnesium part casters.

For 1997, a total of 3.0 MMTCE (460 Mg) of SF_6 was estimated to have been emitted by the magnesium industry, 76 percent more than was estimated for 1990 (see Table 3-39). There are no significant plans for expansion of primary production in the United States, but demand for magnesium metal for die casting has begun to expand as auto manufacturers have begun to design more magnesium parts into vehicle models.

Table 3-39: SF_6 Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing

Year	MMTCE	Mg
1990	1.7	260
1991	2.0	300
1992	2.2	340
1993	2.5	380
1994	2.7	420
1995	3.0	460
1996	3.0	460
1997	3.0	460

Methodology

Emissions were estimated based upon usage information supplied to the EPA by primary magnesium producers. Consumption was assumed to equal emissions in the same year. Although not directly employed, the Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NIAR 1993) has reported a range of emission factors for primary magnesium production as being from 1 to 5 kg of SF_6 per metric ton of magnesium. A survey of magnesium die casters has also reported an average emission factor of 4.1 kg of SF_6 per metric ton of magnesium parts die cast (Gjestland and Magers 1996).

Data Sources

Emission estimates were provided by the EPA's Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Division in cooperation with the U.S. primary magnesium metal producers and casting firms.

Uncertainty

There are a number of uncertainties in these estimates, including the assumption that SF_6 does not react nor decompose during use. In reality, it is possible that the melt surface reactions and high temperatures associated with molten magnesium would cause some gas degradation. Like other sources of SF_6 emissions, verifiable SF_6 consumption data for the United States were not available. Sulfur hexafluoride may also be used as a covergas for the casting of molten aluminum with a high magnesium content; however, it is uncertain to what extent this practice actually occurs.

Box 3-1: Potential Emission Estimates of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆

Emissions of HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ from industrial processes can be estimated in two ways, either as potential emissions or as actual emissions. Emission estimates contained within the rest of this chapter are “actual emissions,” defined by the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 1997) as estimates that take into account the time lag between consumption and emissions. In contrast, “potential emissions” are defined to be equal to the amount of a chemical consumed in a country, minus the amount of a chemical recovered for destruction or export in the year of consideration. Potential emissions will generally be greater for a given year than actual emissions, since some amount of chemical consumed will be stored in products or equipment and will not be emitted to the atmosphere until a later date. Because all chemicals consumed will eventually be emitted into the atmosphere unless they are destroyed, in the long term the cumulative emission estimates using the two approaches should be equivalent. Although actual emissions are considered to be the more accurate estimation approach for a single year, estimates of potential emissions are presented here for completeness.

Separate estimates of potential emissions were not made for industrial processes that fall into the following categories:

- *By-product emissions.* Some emissions do not result from the consumption or use of a chemical, but are the unintended by-products of another process. For such emissions, which include emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆ from aluminum production and of HFC-23 from HCFC-22 production, the distinction between potential and actual emissions is not relevant.
- *Potential emissions that equal actual emissions.* For some sources, such as magnesium production and processing, it is assumed that there is no delay between consumption and emission and that no destruction of the chemical takes place. In this case, actual emissions equal potential emissions.
- *Emissions that are not easily defined.* In some processes, such as semiconductor manufacture, the gases used in the process may be destroyed or transformed into other compounds, which may also be greenhouse gases. It is therefore not logical to estimate potential emissions based on consumption of the original chemical.

Table 3-40 presents potential emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs from the substitution of ozone depleting substances and SF₆ emissions from electrical transmission and distribution and other miscellaneous sources such as tennis shoes and sound insulating windows.¹⁹ Potential emissions associated with the substitution for ozone depleting substances were calculated through a combination of EPA's Vintaging Model and information provided by U.S. chemical manufacturers. For other SF₆ sources, estimates were based on an assumed U.S. SF₆ production capacity and plant utilization to estimate total sales. The portion of this amount used for magnesium processing and assumed to be used for semiconductor manufacture were subtracted. This value of U.S. potential emissions of SF₆ was compared against the value that would be estimated based on global sales data and SF₆ consumption reported by other countries. The two values were consistent within 25 percent.

Table 3-40: 1997 Potential and Actual Emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ from Selected Sources (MMTCE)

Source	Potential	Actual
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	25.7	14.7
Aluminum Production	-	2.9
HCFC-22 Production	-	8.2
Semiconductor Manufacture	-	1.3
Magnesium Production and Processing	3.0	3.0
Other SF ₆ Sources*	14.8	7.0

- Not applicable.
 *Includes Electrical Transmission and Distribution and, in the case of potential emissions, other miscellaneous sources.
 Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

¹⁹ See Annex P for a discussion of sources of SF₆ emissions excluded from the actual emissions estimates in this report.

Industrial Sources of Criteria Pollutants

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, many industrial processes generate emissions of criteria air pollutants. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from non-energy industrial processes from 1990 to 1997 are reported by application category in Table 3-41.

Methodology and Data Sources

The emission estimates for this source were taken directly from the EPA's *National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends, 1900-1997* (EPA 1998). Emissions were calculated either for individual sources or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual source

categories from various agencies. Depending on the source category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's *Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42* (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and accurate estimates of activity data.

Table 3-41: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
NO_x	771	648	629	603	774	656	754	781
Chemical & Allied Product Manufacturing	152	149	148	141	145	144	144	151
Metals Processing	88	69	74	75	82	89	89	93
Storage and Transport	3	5	4	4	5	5	5	6
Other Industrial Processes	343	319	328	336	353	362	366	382
Miscellaneous*	185	106	75	48	189	56	150	150
CO	9,580	7,166	5,480	5,500	7,787	5,370	7,523	7,689
Chemical & Allied Product Manufacturing	1,074	1,022	1,009	992	1,063	1,109	1,109	1,168
Metals Processing	2,395	2,333	2,264	2,301	2,245	2,159	2,157	2,237
Storage and Transport	69	25	15	46	22	22	22	24
Other Industrial Processes	487	497	494	538	544	566	576	601
Miscellaneous*	5,556	3,288	1,697	1,623	3,912	1,514	3,658	3,660
NMVOCs	3,193	2,997	2,825	2,907	3,057	2,873	2,521	2,622
Chemical & Allied Product Manufacturing	575	644	649	636	627	599	396	415
Metals Processing	111	112	113	112	114	113	64	66
Storage and Transport	1,356	1,390	1,436	1,451	1,478	1,499	1,190	1,249
Other Industrial Processes	364	355	376	401	397	409	398	416
Miscellaneous*	787	496	252	306	441	253	473	476

* Miscellaneous includes the following categories: catastrophic/accidental release, other combustion, health services, TSDFs (Transport, Storage, and Disposal Facilities under the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act), cooling towers, and fugitive dust. It does not include agricultural fires or slash/prescribed burning, which are accounted for under the Agricultural Burning source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

4. Solvent Use

The use of solvents and other chemical products can result in emissions of various ozone precursors (i.e., criteria pollutants).¹ Nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), commonly referred to as “hydrocarbons,” are the primary gases emitted from most processes employing organic or petroleum based solvents, along with small amounts of carbon monoxide (CO) and oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) whose emissions are associated with control devices used to reduce NMVOC emissions. Surface coatings accounted for just under a majority of NMVOC emissions from solvent use (46 percent in 1997), while “non-industrial”² uses accounted for about 33 percent and dry cleaning for 3 percent. Overall, solvent use accounted for approximately 34 percent of total U.S. emissions of NMVOCs in 1997, and increased 13 percent since 1990.

Although NMVOCs are not considered direct greenhouse gases, their role as precursors to the formation of ozone^{3/4}which is a greenhouse gas^{3/4}results in their inclusion in a greenhouse gas inventory. Emissions from solvent use have been reported separately by the United States to be consistent with the inventory reporting guidelines recommended by the IPCC. These guidelines identify solvent use as one of the major source categories for which countries should report emissions. In the United States, emissions from solvents are primarily the result of solvent evaporation, whereby the lighter hydrocarbon molecules in the solvents escape into the atmosphere. The evaporation process varies depending on different solvent uses and solvent types. The major categories of solvents uses include: degreasing, graphic arts, surface coating, other industrial uses of solvents (i.e., electronics, etc.), dry cleaning, and non-industrial uses (i.e., uses of paint thinner, etc.). Because many of these industrial applications also employ thermal incineration as a control technology, CO and NO_x combustion by-products are also reported with this source category.

Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), and carbon monoxide (CO) from non-energy industrial processes from 1990 to 1997 are reported by detailed source category in Table 4-1.

Methodology

Emissions were calculated by aggregating solvent use data based on information relating to solvent uses from different applications such as degreasing, graphic arts, etc. Emission factors for each consumption category were then applied to the data to estimate emissions. For example, emissions from surface coatings were mostly due to solvent evaporation as the coatings solidify. By applying the appropriate solvent emission factors to the type of solvents used for surface coatings, an estimate of emissions was obtained. Emissions of CO and NO_x result primarily from thermal and catalytic incineration of solvent laden gas streams from painting booths, printing operations, and oven exhaust.

¹ Solvent usage in the United States also results in the emission of small amounts of hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and hydrofluoroethers (HFEs), which are included under Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances in the Industrial Processes chapter.

² “Non-industrial” uses include cutback asphalt, pesticide application adhesives, consumer solvents, and other miscellaneous applications.

Table 4-1: Emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC from Solvent Use (Gg)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
NO_x	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Graphic Arts	+	+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Dry Cleaning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Surface Coating	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Other Industrial Processes ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
CO	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	6
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Graphic Arts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	+	+	+	+	1	1	1	1
Surface Coating	+	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Other Industrial Processes ^a	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
NMVOCs	5,217	5,245	5,353	5,458	5,590	5,609	5,691	5,882
Degreasing	675	651	669	683	703	716	599	628
Graphic Arts	249	273	280	292	302	307	353	373
Dry Cleaning	195	198	203	204	207	209	172	174
Surface Coating	2,289	2,287	2,338	2,387	2,464	2,432	2,613	2,713
Other Industrial Processes ^a	85	89	93	93	90	87	48	51
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	1,724	1,746	1,771	1,798	1,825	1,858	1,905	1,943

^a Includes rubber and plastics manufacturing, and other miscellaneous applications.
^b Includes cutback asphalt, pesticide application adhesives, consumer solvents, and other miscellaneous applications.
 Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.
 + Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

Data Sources

The emission estimates for this source were taken directly from the EPA's *National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends, 1900-1997* (EPA 1998). Emissions were calculated either for individual sources or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of solvent purchased) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual applications from various agencies.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's *Compilation of Air Pollutant Emis-*

sion Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA data bases.

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and the reliability of correlations between activity data and actual emissions.

5. Agriculture

Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes. The Agriculture chapter includes the following sources: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil activities, and agricultural residue burning (see Figure 5-1). Several other agricultural activities, such as irrigation and tillage practices, may also generate anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions; however, the impacts of these practices are too uncertain to estimate emissions.¹ Agriculture-related land-use activities, such as conversion of grassland to cultivated land, are discussed in the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

In 1997, agricultural activities were responsible for emissions of 131.4 MMTCE, or 7 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. Methane emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represent about 19 and 9 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively. Of all domestic animal types, beef and dairy cattle were by far the largest emitters of methane. Rice cultivation and agricultural crop waste burning were minor sources of methane. Agricultural soil management activities such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions, accounting for 68 percent. Manure management and agricultural residue burning were also smaller sources of N₂O emissions.

Figure 5-1

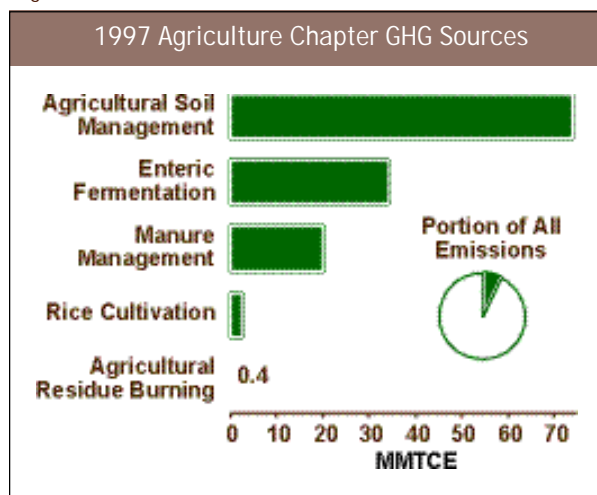


Table 5-1 and Table 5-2 present emission estimates for the Agriculture chapter. Between 1990 and 1997, CH₄ emissions from agricultural activities increased by 8 percent while N₂O emissions increased by 13 percent. In addition to CH₄ and N₂O, agricultural residue burning was also a minor source of the criteria pollutants carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x).

¹ Irrigation associated with rice cultivation is included in this inventory.

Table 5-1: Emissions from Agriculture (MMTCE)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	50.3	50.9	52.2	52.5	54.5	54.8	53.8	54.1
Enteric Fermentation	32.7	32.8	33.2	33.6	34.5	34.9	34.5	34.1
Manure Management	14.9	15.4	16.0	16.1	16.7	16.9	16.6	17.0
Rice Cultivation	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.7
Agricultural Residue Burning	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
N₂O	68.1	69.1	70.9	69.9	76.4	73.2	75.1	77.2
Manure Management	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Agricultural Soil Management	65.3	66.2	68.0	67.0	73.4	70.2	72.0	74.1
Agricultural Residue Burning	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	118.4	120.0	123.1	122.4	130.9	128.0	128.9	131.4

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-2: Emissions from Agriculture (Tg)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	8.8	8.9	9.1	9.2	9.5	9.6	9.4	9.4
Enteric Fermentation	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.0
Manure Management	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0
Rice Cultivation	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5
Agricultural Residue Burning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Manure Management	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Agricultural Soil Management	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9
Agricultural Residue Burning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Enteric Fermentation

Methane (CH₄) is produced as part of the normal digestive processes in animals. During digestion, microbes resident in an animal's digestive system ferment food consumed by the animal. This microbial fermentation process, referred to as enteric fermentation, produces methane as a by-product, which can be exhaled, or eructated, by the animal. The amount of methane produced and excreted by an individual animal depends primarily upon the animal's digestive system, and the amount and type of feed it consumes.

Among domestic animal types, the ruminant animals (e.g., cattle, buffalo, sheep, goats, and camels) are the major emitters of methane because of their unique digestive system. Ruminants possess a rumen, or large "fore-stomach," in which microbial fermentation breaks down the feed they consume into soluble products that can be utilized by the animal. The microbial fermentation that occurs in the rumen enables ruminants to digest

coarse plant material that non-ruminant animals cannot. Ruminant animals, consequently, have the highest methane emissions among all animal types.

Non-ruminant domestic animals (e.g., pigs, horses, mules, rabbits, and guinea pigs) also produce methane through enteric fermentation, although this microbial fermentation occurs in the large intestine. These non-ruminants have significantly lower methane emissions than ruminants because the capacity of the large intestine to produce methane is lower.

In addition to the type of digestive system, an animal's feed intake also affects methane excretion. In general, a higher feed intake leads to higher methane emissions. Feed intake is positively related to animal size, growth rate, and production (e.g., milk production, wool growth, pregnancy, or work). Therefore, feed intake varies among animal types as well as among different management practices for individual animal types.

Methane emissions estimates for livestock are shown in Table 5-3 and Table 5-4. Total livestock emis-

Table 5-3: CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (MMTCE)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cattle	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.3
Beef Cattle	22.6	22.8	23.1	23.6	24.5	24.9	24.6	24.3
Other	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Sheep	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Goats	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Horses	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Hogs	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Total	32.7	32.8	33.2	33.6	34.5	34.9	34.5	34.1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-4: CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Tg)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cattle	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Beef Cattle	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2
Other	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Sheep	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Horses	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Hogs	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.0

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

sions in 1997 were 34.1 MMTCE (6.0 Tg). Emissions from dairy cattle remained relatively constant from 1990 to 1997 despite a steady increase in milk production. During this time, emissions per cow increased due to a rise in milk production per dairy cow (see Table 5-5); however, this trend was offset by a decline in the dairy cow population. Beef cattle emissions continued to decline, caused by the second consecutive year of declining cattle populations. Methane emissions from other animals have remained relatively constant.

Methodology

Livestock emission estimates fall into two categories: cattle and other domesticated animals. Cattle, due to their large population, large size, and particular digestive characteristics, account for the majority of methane emissions from livestock in the United States and are handled separately. Also, cattle production systems in the United States are well characterized in comparison with

other livestock management systems. Overall, emissions estimates were derived using emission factors, which were multiplied by animal population data.

While the large diversity of animal management practices cannot be precisely characterized and evaluated, significant scientific literature exists that describes the quantity of methane produced by individual ruminant animals, particularly cattle. A detailed model that incorporates this information and other analyses of feeding practices and production characteristics was used to estimate emissions from cattle populations.

To derive emission factors for the various types of cattle found in the United States, a mechanistic model of rumen digestion and animal production was applied to data on thirty-two different diets and nine different cattle types (Baldwin et al. 1987a and b).² The cattle types were defined to represent the different sizes, ages, feeding systems, and management systems that are typically found in the United States. Representative diets were

² The basic model of Baldwin et al. (1987a and b) was revised somewhat to allow for evaluations of a greater range of animal types and diets. See EPA (1993).

defined for each category of animal, reflecting the feeds and forages consumed by cattle type and region. Using this model, emission factors were derived for each combination of animal type and representative diet. Based upon the level of use of each diet in the five regions, average regional emission factors for each of the nine cattle types were derived.³ These emission factors were then multiplied by the applicable animal populations from each region.

For dairy cows and beef cows and replacements, emission estimates were developed using regional emission factors. Dairy cow emission factors were modified to reflect changing (primarily increasing) milk production per cow over time in each region. All other emission factors were held constant over time. Emissions from other cattle types were estimated using national average emission factors.

Emissions estimates for other animal types were based upon average emission factors representative of entire populations of each animal type. Methane emissions from these animals accounted for a minor portion of total methane emissions from livestock in the United States. Also, the variability in emission factors for each of these other animal types (e.g., variability by age, production system, and feeding practice within each animal type) is smaller than for cattle.

See Annex G for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate methane emissions from enteric fermentation.

Data Sources

The emission estimates for all domestic livestock were determined using a mechanistic model of rumen digestion and emission factors developed in EPA (1993). For dairy cows and beef cows and replacements, regional emission factors were used from EPA (1993). Emissions from other cattle types were estimated using national average emission factors from EPA (1993). Methane emissions from sheep, goats, pigs, and horses were estimated by using emission factors utilized in Crutzen et al. (1986) and annual population data from USDA statistical reports. These emission factors are representative of

typical animal sizes, feed intakes, and feed characteristics in developed countries. The methodology employed in EPA (1993) is the same as those recommended in IPCC (1997). All livestock population data were taken from USDA statistical reports. See the following section on manure management for a complete listing of reports cited. Table 5-5 below provides a summary of cattle population and milk production data.

Table 5-5: Cow Populations (thousands) and Milk Production (million kilograms)

Year	Dairy Cow Population	Beef Cow Population	Milk Production
1990	10,007	32,677	67,006
1991	9,883	32,960	66,995
1992	9,714	33,453	68,441
1993	9,679	34,132	68,304
1994	9,514	35,325	69,702
1995	9,494	35,628	70,500
1996	9,409	35,414	69,976
1997	9,304	34,486	71,035

Uncertainty

The diets analyzed using the rumen digestion model include broad representations of the types of feed consumed within each region. Therefore, the full diversity of feeding strategies employed in the United States is not represented and the emission factors used may be biased. The rumen digestion model, however, has been validated by experimental data. Animal population and production statistics, particularly for beef cows and other grazing cattle, are also uncertain. Overall, the uncertainty in the emission estimate is estimated to be roughly “20 percent (EPA 1993).

Manure Management

The management of livestock manure produces methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions. Methane is produced by the anaerobic decomposition of manure. Nitrous oxide is produced as part of the agricultural nitrogen cycle through the denitrification of the organic nitrogen in livestock manure and urine.

³ Feed intake of bulls does not vary significantly by region, so only a national emission factor was derived for this cattle type.

When livestock and poultry manure is stored or treated in systems that promote anaerobic conditions (e.g., as a liquid in lagoons, ponds, tanks, or pits), the decomposition of materials in manure tends to produce methane. When manure is handled as a solid (e.g., in stacks or pits) or deposited on pastures and range lands, it tends to decompose aerobically and produce little or no methane. Air temperature and moisture also affect the amount of methane produced because they influence the growth of the bacteria responsible for methane formation. Methane production generally increases with rising temperature and residency time. Also, for non-liquid based manure systems, moist conditions (which are a function of rainfall and humidity) favor methane production. Although the majority of manure is handled as a solid, producing little methane, the general trend in manure management, particularly for dairy and swine producers, is one of increasing usage of liquid systems.

The composition of the manure also affects the amount of methane produced. Manure composition depends upon the diet of the animals. The greater the energy content and digestibility of the feed, the greater the potential for methane emissions. For example, feedlot cattle fed a high energy grain diet generate manure with a high methane-producing capacity. Range cattle feeding on a low energy diet of forage material produce manure with only half the methane-producing capacity of feedlot cattle manure.

The amount of N₂O produced can also vary depending on the manure and urine composition, the type of bacteria involved in the process, and the amount of oxygen and liquid in the manure system. Nitrous oxide emissions result from livestock manure and urine that is managed using liquid and slurry systems, as well as manure and urine that is collected and stored. Nitrous oxide emissions from unmanaged livestock manure and urine on pastures, ranges, and paddocks, as well as from manure and urine that is spread onto fields is accounted for and discussed under Agricultural Soil Management.

Table 5-6, Table 5-7, and Table 5-8 (note, Table 5-8 is in units of gigagrams) provide estimates of methane and nitrous oxide emissions from manure management. Emission quantities are broken down by animal categories representing the major methane producing groups.

Estimates for methane emissions in 1997 were 17.0 MMTCE (3.0 Tg). Emissions have increased each year from 1990 through 1995; however, emissions decreased slightly in 1996 with a decline in animal populations, including swine. In 1997, emissions from this source increased above even 1995 levels, mostly due to revived swine production and higher poultry production. Under the AgSTAR Program of the U.S. Climate Change Action Plan, methane emissions from manure have been reduced through methane recovery efforts. The AgSTAR Program reported a reduction of 0.1 MMTCE of methane in both 1996 and 1997.

Total N₂O emissions from managed manure systems in 1997 were estimated to be 3.0 MMTCE (35 Gg). The 15 percent increase in emissions from 1990 to 1997 can be attributed to an increase in the population of poultry and swine over the eight year period. The proportion of beef cattle in feedlots, which were assumed to use managed manure systems, also increased. Again, unmanaged livestock manure is accounted for under Agricultural Soil Management. Methane emissions were mostly unaffected by this shift in the beef cattle population because feedlot cattle use solid storage systems, which produce little methane.

In general, changes in the emission estimates over time reflect variations in animal populations. The estimates also reflect a regional redistribution of dairies to the southwestern states, which have larger average farm sizes, and an increase in feed consumption by dairy cows to accommodate increased milk production per cow. Regional shifts in the hog population were also assessed.

Methodology

The methods presented in EPA (1993) form the basis of the methane emissions estimates for each animal type. The calculation of emissions requires the following information:

- Amount of manure produced (amount per head times number of head)
- Portion of the manure that is volatile solids (by animal type)
- Methane producing potential of the volatile solids (by animal type)

Table 5-6: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management (MMTCE)

Gas/Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	14.9	15.4	16.0	16.1	16.7	16.9	16.6	17.0
Dairy Cattle	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.6
Beef Cattle	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Swine	7.8	8.2	8.6	8.6	9.1	9.2	8.8	9.3
Sheep	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8
Horses	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
N₂O	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Dairy Cattle	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Beef Cattle	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Swine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Sheep	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Goats	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Poultry	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6
Horses	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	17.6	18.2	18.7	19.0	19.7	19.8	19.5	20.0

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-7: CH₄ Emissions from Manure Management (Tg)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cattle	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Beef Cattle	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Swine	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6
Sheep	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Horses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-8: N₂O Emissions from Manure Management (Gg)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cattle	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Beef Cattle	13	15	14	15	15	14	14	15
Swine	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Sheep	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	15	16	16	17	17	18	18	19
Horses	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	31	33	33	34	35	34	35	36

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

- Extent to which the methane producing potential is realized for each type of manure management system (by state and manure management system)
- Portion of manure managed in each manure management system (by state and animal type)

For dairy cattle and swine—the two largest emitters of methane—estimates were developed using state-level animal population data. For other animal types, 1990 emission estimates from the detailed analysis presented in EPA (1993) were scaled at the national level using the population of each livestock type. Nitrous oxide emissions were estimated by first determining manure management system usage. Manure system usage for dairy cows and swine were based on the farm size distribution. Total Kjeldahl nitrogen⁴ production was calculated for all livestock using livestock population data and nitrogen excretion rates. The total amount of nitrogen from manure was reduced by 20 percent to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH₃ and NO_x (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Nitrous oxide emission factors were then applied to total nitrogen production to estimate N₂O emissions. Throughout the time series the estimates of the portion of manure and urine which is managed in each of the manure management systems in each state remained fixed.

See Annex H for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate methane emissions from manure management. The same activity data was also used to calculate N₂O emissions.

Data Sources

Annual livestock population data for all livestock types except horses were obtained from the U.S. Department of Agriculture’s National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994a, b; 1995a-j; 1996a-f; 1997a-f, 1998a-h). Horse population data were obtained from the FAOSTAT database (FAO 1998). Data on farm size distribution for dairy cows and swine were taken from the U.S. Department of Commerce (DOC 1995, 1987). Manure management system usage data for other livestock were taken from EPA (1992). Nitrogen excretion rate data were developed by the American Society of Agricultural Engineers (ASAE

1995). Nitrous oxide emission factors were taken from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997). Manure management systems characterized as “Other” generally refers to deep pit and litter systems. The IPCC N₂O emission factor for “other” systems (0.005 kg N₂O/kg N excreted), was determined to be inconsistent with the characteristics of these management systems. Therefore, in its place the solid storage/dry-lot emission factor was used.

Uncertainty

The primary factors contributing to the uncertainty in emission estimates are a lack of information on the usage of various manure management systems in each state and the exact methane generating characteristics of each type of manure management system. Because of significant shifts in the dairy and swine sectors toward larger farms, it is believed that increasing amounts of manure are being managed in liquid manure management systems. The existing estimates capture a portion of these shifts as the dairy and swine populations move regionally toward states with larger average farm sizes. However, changes in farm size distribution within states since 1992 are not captured by the method. The methane generating characteristics of each manure management system type are based on relatively few laboratory and field measurements, and may not match the diversity of conditions under which manure is managed nationally.

The N₂O emission factors published in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) were also derived using limited information. The IPCC factors are global averages; U.S.-specific emission factors may be significantly different. Manure and urine in anaerobic lagoons and liquid/slurry management systems produce methane at different rates, and would in all likelihood produce N₂O at different rates, although a single emission factor was used.

Rice Cultivation

Most of the world’s rice, and all rice in the United States, is grown on flooded fields. When fields are flooded, aerobic decomposition of organic material gradually depletes the oxygen present in the soil and

⁴ Total Kjeldahl nitrogen is a measure of organically bound nitrogen and ammonia nitrogen.

floodwater causing anaerobic conditions in the soil to develop. Under such conditions, methane is produced through anaerobic decomposition of soil organic matter by methanogenic bacteria. However, not all of the methane that is produced is released into the atmosphere. As much as 60 to 90 percent of the methane produced is oxidized by aerobic methanotrophic bacteria in the soil (Holzapfel-Pschorn et al. 1985, Sass et al. 1990). Some of the methane is also leached away as dissolved methane in floodwater that percolates from the field. The remaining non-oxidized methane is transported from the submerged soil to the atmosphere primarily by diffusive transport through the rice plants. Some methane also escapes from the soil via diffusion and bubbling through floodwaters.

The water management system under which rice is grown is one of the most important factors affecting methane emissions. Upland rice fields are not flooded, and therefore are not believed to produce methane. In deepwater rice fields (i.e., fields with flooding depths greater than one meter), lower stems and roots of the rice plants are dead, and thus effectively block the primary methane transport pathway to the atmosphere. Therefore, while deepwater rice growing areas are believed to emit methane, the quantities released are likely to be significantly less than the quantities released from areas with more shallow flooding depths. Also, some flooded fields are drained periodically during the growing season, either intentionally or accidentally. If water is drained and soils are allowed to dry sufficiently, methane emissions decrease or stop entirely. This is due to soil aeration, which not only causes existing soil methane to oxidize but also inhibits further methane production in soils. All rice in the United States is grown under continuously flooded conditions; none is grown under deepwater conditions.

Other factors that influence methane emissions from flooded rice fields include soil temperature, soil type, fertilization practices, cultivar selection, and other cultivation practices (e.g., tillage, seeding and weeding practices). Many studies have found, for example, that methane emissions increase as soil temperature increases. Several studies have also indicated that some types of synthetic nitrogen fertilizer inhibit methane generation,

while organic fertilizers enhance methane emissions. However, while it is generally acknowledged that these factors influence methane emissions, the extent of their influence, individually or in combination, has not been well quantified.

Rice cultivation is a small source of methane in the United States. Only seven states grow rice: Arkansas, California, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, and Texas. Methane emissions from rice cultivation in 1997 were estimated to have been 2.7 MMTCE (475 Gg). Table 5-9 and Table 5-10 present annual emission estimates for each state. There was no apparent trend over the seven year period. Between 1994 and 1996, rice areas declined fairly steadily in almost all states, and the national total declined by about 8 percent each year; in 1997, however, rice areas increased by about 7 percent (see Table 5-11).

The factors that affect the rice area harvested vary from state to state. In Florida, the state having the smallest harvested rice area, rice acreage is driven by sugarcane acreage. Sugarcane fields are flooded each year to control pests, and on this flooded land a rice crop is grown along with a ratoon crop of sugarcane (Schudeman 1997a). In Missouri, rice acreage is affected by weather (rain during the planting season may prevent the planting of rice), prices of soybeans relative to rice (if soybean prices are higher, then soybeans may be planted on some of the land which would otherwise have been planted in rice), and government support programs (which, beginning in 1996, were being phased-out) (Stevens 1997). In Mississippi, rice acreage is driven by both the price of rice and the price of soybeans. Rice in Mississippi is usually rotated with soybeans, but if soybean prices increase relative to rice prices, then some of the acreage that would have been planted in rice, is instead planted in soybeans (Street 1997). In Texas, rice production, and thus, harvested area, are driven by both government programs and the cost of production (Klosterboer 1997). California rice area is influenced by water availability as well as government programs and commodity prices. In recent years, California was able to grow more rice due to recovery from a drought, as well as price increases associated with gaining access to the Japanese market (Scardaci 1997). In Louisiana, rice

Table 5-9: CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (MMTCE)

State	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Arkansas	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0
California	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Florida	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Louisiana	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Mississippi	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Missouri	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Texas	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Total	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-10: CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Gg)

State	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Arkansas	156	164	180	160	185	175	152	178
California	79	70	79	88	98	94	101	103
Florida	3	5	5	5	5	5	4	5
Louisiana	111	104	126	108	126	116	99	111
Mississippi	27	24	30	27	34	32	23	26
Missouri	11	12	15	12	16	15	12	14
Texas	52	50	51	43	52	46	40	38
Total	439	429	486	443	516	482	431	475

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

area is influenced by government programs, weather conditions (such as rainfall during the planting season), as well as the price of rice relative to that of corn and other crops (Saichuk 1997). Arkansas rice area has been influenced in the past by government programs. The phase-out of these programs began in 1996, and commodity prices in the spring had a greater effect on the amount of land planted in rice (Mayhew 1997).

Methodology

The *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) recommend applying a seasonal emission factor to the annual harvested rice area to estimate annual CH₄ emissions. This methodology assumes that a seasonal emission factor is available for all growing conditions, including season lengths. Because season lengths are variable both within and among states in the United States, and because flux measurements have not been taken under all growing conditions in the United States, the previous IPCC methodology (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1995) has been applied here, using season lengths that vary slightly from

the recommended approach. The 1995 *IPCC Guidelines* recommend multiplying a daily average emission factor by growing season length and annual harvested area. The *IPCC Guidelines* suggest that the “growing” season be used to calculate emissions based on the assumption that emission factors are derived from measurements over the whole growing season rather than just the flooding season. Applying this assumption to the United States, however, would result in an overestimate of emissions because the emission factors developed for the United States are based on measurements over the flooding, rather than the growing, season. Therefore, the method used here is based on the number of days of flooding during the growing season and a daily average emission factor, which is multiplied by the harvested area. Agricultural statisticians in each of the seven states in the United States that produce rice were contacted to determine water management practices and flooding season lengths in each state. Although all contacts reported that rice growing areas were continually flooded, flooding season lengths varied considerably among states; therefore, emissions were calculated separately for each state.

The climatic conditions of southwest Louisiana, Texas, and Florida also allow for a second, or ratoon, rice crop. This second rice crop is produced from re-growth on the stubble after the first crop has been harvested. The emission estimates presented here account for this additional harvested area.

Because the number of days that the rice fields remain permanently flooded varies considerably with planting system and cultivar type, a range for the flooding season length was adopted for each state. The harvested areas and flooding season lengths for each state are presented in Table 5-11 and Table 5-12, respectively.

Data Sources

Data on harvested rice area for all states except Florida were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture's *Crop Production 1997 Summary* (USDA 1998). Harvested rice areas in Florida from 1990 to 1996 were obtained from Tom Schudeman (1997a), a Florida Agricultural Extension Agent. Harvested rice areas in Florida in 1997 were obtained from Terrie Smith of Sem-Chi Rice (1998). Acreages for the ratoon crops were estimated by assuming that the ratooned areas were equal to about 30 percent of the primary crop in Louisiana, 40 percent in

Texas (Lindau and Bollich 1993); 50 percent of the primary crop in Florida in 1990 through 1996 (Schudeman 1995), and 67 percent of the primary crop in Florida in 1997 (Smith, 1998). Information about flooding season lengths was obtained from agricultural extension agents in every rice-producing state. Daily methane emission factors were taken from results of field studies performed in California (Cicerone et al. 1983), Texas (Sass et al. 1990, 1991a, 1991b, 1992) and Louisiana (Lindau et al. 1991, Lindau and Bollich 1993). Based on the maximal and minimal estimates of the emission rates measured in these studies, a range of 0.1065 to 0.5639 g/m²/day was applied to the harvested areas and flooding season lengths in each state.⁵ Since these measurements were taken in rice growing areas, they are representative of soil temperatures, and water and fertilizer management practices typical of the United States.

Uncertainty

There are three sources of uncertainty in the calculation of CH₄ emissions from rice cultivation. The largest uncertainty is associated with the emission factor. Daily average emissions, derived from field measurements in the United States, vary from state to state by as

Table 5-11: Area Harvested for Rice-Producing States (hectares)

State/Crop	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Arkansas	485,633	509,915	558,478	497,774	574,666	542,291	473,493	554,431
California	159,854	141,071	159,450	176,851	196,277	188,183	202,347	206,394
Florida								
Primary	4,978	8,580	8,944	8,449	8,902	8,903	8,903	7,406
Ratoon	2,489	4,290	4,472	4,225	4,451	4,452	4,452	4,943
Louisiana								
Primary	220,558	206,394	250,911	214,488	250,911	230,676	215,702	221,773
Ratoon	66,168	61,918	75,273	64,346	75,273	69,203	64,711	66,532
Mississippi	101,174	89,033	111,291	99,150	126,669	116,552	84,176	96,317
Missouri	32,376	37,232	45,326	37,637	50,182	45,326	36,423	44,112
Texas								
Primary	142,857	138,810	142,048	120,599	143,262	128,693	120,599	104,816
Ratoon	57,143	55,524	56,819	48,240	57,305	51,477	48,240	41,926
Total	1,273,229	1,255,767	1,413,011	1,271,759	1,487,897	1,385,755	1,259,045	1,348,650

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

⁵ Two measurements from these studies were excluded when determining the emission coefficient range. A low seasonal average flux of 0.0595 g/m²/day in Sass et al. (1990) was excluded because this site experienced a mid-season accidental drainage of floodwater, after which methane emissions declined substantially and did not recover for about two weeks. Also, the high seasonal average flux of 2.041 g/m²/day in Lindau and Bollich (1993) was excluded since this emission rate is unusually high, compared to other flux measurements in the United States, as well as in Europe and Asia (see IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Table 5-12: Primary Cropping Flooding Season Length (days)

State	Low	High
Arkansas	75	100
California	123	153
Florida*	90	120
Louisiana*	90	120
Mississippi	75	82
Missouri	80	100
Texas*	60	80

* These states have a second, or "ratoon", cropping cycle which may have a shorter flooding season than the one listed in the table.

much as two orders of magnitude (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). This variability is due to differences in cultivation practices, such as ratooning and fertilizer use, as well as differences in soil and climatic conditions. A range (0.3352 g/m²/day ±68 percent) has been used in these calculations to reflect this variability. Based on this range, methane emissions from rice cultivation in 1997 were estimated to have been approximately 0.7 to 4.8 MMTCE (121 to 830 Gg).

Another source of uncertainty is in the flooding season lengths used for each state. Flooding seasons in each state may fluctuate from year to year and thus a range has been used to reflect this uncertainty.

The last source of uncertainty centers around the ratoon, or second crop. Rice fields for the ratoon crop typically remain flooded for a shorter period of time than for the first crop. Studies indicate, however, that the methane emission rate of the ratoon crop may be significantly higher than that of the first crop. The rice straw produced during the first harvest has been shown to dramatically increase methane emissions during the ratoon cropping season (Lindau and Bollich 1993). It is not clear to what extent the shorter season length and higher emission rates offset each other. As scientific understanding improves, these emission estimates can be adjusted to better reflect these variables.

Agricultural Soil Management

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is produced naturally in soils through the microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification.⁶ A number of agricultural activities add nitrogen to soils, thereby increasing the amount of nitrogen available for nitrification and denitrification, and ultimately the amount of N₂O emitted. These activities may add nitrogen to soils either directly or indirectly. Direct additions occur through various cropping practices (i.e., application of synthetic and organic fertilizers, application of animal wastes, production of nitrogen-fixing crops, incorporation of crop residues, and cultivation of high organic content soils, called histosols), and through animal grazing (i.e., direct deposition of animal wastes on pastures, range, and paddocks by grazing animals). Indirect additions occur through two mechanisms: 1) volatilization of applied nitrogen (i.e., fertilizer and animal waste) and subsequent atmospheric deposition of that nitrogen as ammonia (NH₃) and oxides of nitrogen (NO_x); and 2) surface runoff and leaching of applied nitrogen. Other agricultural soil management practices, such as irrigation, drainage, tillage practices, and fallowing of land, can affect fluxes of N₂O, as well as other greenhouse gases, to and from soils. However, because there are significant uncertainties as to the effects of these other practices, they have not been estimated.

Estimates of annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management were underestimated in the previous U.S. Inventory because the animal waste portion of direct N₂O emissions from agricultural cropping practices included only animal wastes managed as "daily spread." However, of the total animal waste nitrogen produced in the U.S., all of it (i.e., nitrogen from animal wastes managed as daily spread and managed in animal waste management systems) will eventually be applied to soils with the exception of that which volatilizes, runs off, is used for feed, and is directly deposited by grazing animals. The present inventory accounts for total animal waste nitrogen, and, as a consequence, the emission esti-

⁶ Nitrification is the aerobic microbial oxidation of ammonium to nitrate, and denitrification is the anaerobic microbial reduction of nitrate to dinitrogen gas (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Nitrous oxide is a gaseous intermediate product in the reaction sequences of both processes, which leaks from microbial cells into the soil atmosphere.

mates provided below are higher (by about five percent) than previous estimates.

The revised estimates of annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management range from 65.3 to 74.1 MMTCE (773 to 876 Gg N₂O) for the years 1990 to 1997 (Table 5-13 and Table 5-14). Emission levels increased fairly steadily from 1990 to 1997 except for the year 1993, when emissions declined slightly, and the year 1994, when emissions increased sharply. These fluctuations are largely a reflection of annual variations in synthetic nitrogen fertilizer consumption and crop production. Synthetic nitrogen fertilizer consumption, and production of corn and most beans and pulses, peaked in 1994 due to the 1993 flooding of the North Central region and the intensive cultivation that followed. Over the eight-year period, total emissions of N₂O increased by 13 percent.

Methodology and Data Sources

This N₂O source category is divided into three components: (1) direct emissions from agricultural soils due to cropping practices; (2) direct emissions from agricultural soils due to grazing animals; and (3) emissions from soils indirectly induced by agricultural applications of

nitrogen. The emission estimates for all three components follow the methodologies in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Direct N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils

Estimates of N₂O emissions from this component are based on the total amount of nitrogen that is applied to soils through cropping practices. These practices are (1) the application of synthetic and organic fertilizers, (2) the application of animal waste through both daily spread and eventual application of wastes that had been managed in waste management systems (e.g., lagoons), (3) the production of nitrogen-fixing crops, (4) the incorporation of crop residues into the soil, and (5) the cultivation of histosols.

Annual synthetic and organic fertilizer consumption data for the U.S. were taken from annual publications on commercial fertilizer statistics (AAPFCO 1995, 1996, 1997; TVA 1990, 1992a,b, 1994). Organic fertilizers included in these publications are manure, compost, dried blood, sewage sludge, tankage⁷, and other organic. The manure portion of the organic fertilizers was subtracted from the total organic fertilizer consumption data to avoid double counting⁸. Fertilizer consumption data are recorded in “fertilizer

Table 5-13: N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management (MMTCE)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Direct								
Agricultural Soils	36.5	37.0	38.4	36.7	42.1	39.0	40.8	43.0
Grazing Animals	10.1	10.1	10.4	10.5	10.8	11.0	10.8	10.7
Indirect	18.8	19.1	19.2	19.7	20.4	20.1	20.4	20.4
Total	65.3	66.2	68.0	67.0	73.4	70.2	72.0	74.1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-14: N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management (Gg N₂O)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Direct								
Agricultural Soils	431	438	454	434	498	461	482	509
Grazing Animals	119	120	123	125	128	131	128	126
Indirect	222	225	227	233	241	238	241	241
Total	773	783	804	792	868	830	851	876

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

⁷ Tankage is dried animal residue, usually freed from fat and gelatin.

⁸ The manure is accounted for when estimating the total amount of nitrogen from manure applied to soils.

year” totals (July to June) which were converted to calendar year totals by assuming that approximately 35 percent of fertilizer usage occurred from July to December (TVA 1992b). July to December values were not available for calendar year 1997, so a “least squares line” statistical test using the past seven data points was used to arrive at an approximate total. Data on the nitrogen content of synthetic fertilizers were available in published consumption reports; however, data on non-manure organic fertilizer consumption did not include nitrogen content information. To convert to units of nitrogen, it was assumed that 4.1 percent of non-manure organic fertilizers (on a mass basis) was nitrogen (Terry 1997). Annual consumption of commercial fertilizers (synthetic and non-manure organic) in units of nitrogen are presented in Table 5-15. The total amount of nitrogen consumed from synthetic and non-manure organic fertilizers was reduced by 10 percent and 20 percent, respectively, to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH_3 and NO_x (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

To estimate the amount of animal waste nitrogen applied to soils, it was assumed that of the total animal waste nitrogen produced in the U.S., all of it will eventually be applied to soils with three exceptions. These exceptions are (1) the portion of nitrogen that will volatilize, (2) the nitrogen in the poultry waste that is used as feed for ruminants (i.e., approximately 10% of the poultry waste produced in the U.S.), and (3) the nitrogen in the waste that is directly deposited onto fields by grazing animals⁹. Annual animal population data for all livestock types, except horses, were obtained from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994b,c, 1995a-j, 1996a-g, 1997a-g, 1998a-g). Horse population data were taken from U.S. Department of Commerce’s Bureau of Census (DOC 1987) and FAO (1996). Population data (by animal type) were multiplied by an average animal mass constant (ASAE 1995) to derive total animal mass for each animal type. Total Kjeldahl nitrogen¹⁰ excreted per year (manure and urine) was then calculated using daily rates of N excretion per unit of animal mass (ASAE 1995) (see Table 5-16). The amount of

animal waste nitrogen directly deposited by grazing animals, derived using manure management system usage data and farm size (Safely et al. 1992, DOC 1995) as described in the “Direct N_2O Emissions from Grazing Animals” section, was then subtracted from the total nitrogen. Ten percent of the poultry waste nitrogen produced in managed systems and used as feed for ruminants was then subtracted. Finally, the total amount of nitrogen from manure applied to soils was then reduced by 20 percent to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH_3 and NO_x (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Annual production statistics for nitrogen-fixing crops (beans, pulses, and alfalfa) were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture reports (USDA 1994a, 1997h, 1998h). These statistics are presented in Table 5-17. Crop product values for beans and pulses were expanded to total crop dry biomass, in mass units of dry matter, by applying residue to crop ratios and dry matter fractions for residue from Strehler and Stützle (1987). Crop product values for the alfalfa were converted to dry matter mass units by applying a dry matter fraction value estimated at 80 percent (Mosier 1998). To convert to units of nitrogen, it was assumed that 3 percent of the total crop dry mass for all crops was nitrogen (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

To estimate the amount of nitrogen applied to soils through crop residue incorporation, it was assumed that all residues from corn, wheat, bean, and pulse production, except the fractions that are burned in the field after harvest, are plowed under. Annual production statistics were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA 1994a, 1997h, 1998h). These statistics are presented in Table 5-17 and Table 5-18. Crop residue biomass, in dry matter mass units, was calculated from the production statistics by applying residue to crop mass ratios and dry matter fractions for residue from Strehler and Stützle (1987). For wheat and corn, nitrogen contents were taken from Barnard and Kristoferson (1985). For beans and pulses, it was assumed that 3 percent of the total crop residue was nitrogen (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

⁹ An additional exception is the nitrogen in the waste that will runoff from waste management systems due to inadequate management. There is insufficient information with which to estimate this fraction of waste nitrogen.

¹⁰ Total Kjeldahl nitrogen is a measure of organically bound nitrogen and ammonia nitrogen.

The crops whose residues were burned in the field are corn, wheat, soybeans, and peanuts. For these crop types, the total residue nitrogen was reduced by 3 percent to subtract the fractions burned in the field (see the Agricultural Residue Burning section of this chapter).

Total crop nitrogen in the residues returned to soils was then added to the unvolatilized applied nitrogen from commercial fertilizers and animal wastes, and the nitrogen fixation from bean, pulse, and alfalfa cultivation. The sum was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor (0.0125 kg N₂O-N/kg N applied) to estimate annual N₂O emissions from nitrogen applied to soils.

Statistics on the area of histosols cultivated annually were not available, so an estimate for the year 1982 (Mausbach and Spivey 1993) was used for all years in the 1990 to 1997 series (see Table 5-19). The area estimate was derived from USDA land-use statistics. The histosol area cultivated was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor (5 kg N₂O-N/ha cultivated) to estimate annual N₂O emissions from histosol cultivation.

Annual N₂O emissions from nitrogen applied to soils were then added to annual N₂O emissions from histosol cultivation to estimate total direct annual N₂O emissions from agricultural cropping practices (see Table 5-20).

Direct N₂O Emissions from Grazing Animals

Estimates of N₂O emissions from this component were based on animal wastes that are not used as animal feed, or applied to soils, or managed in manure management systems, but instead are deposited directly on soils by animals in pastures, range, and paddocks.¹¹ It was assumed that all unmanaged wastes, except for dairy cow wastes, fall into this category (Safely et al. 1992). Estimates of nitrogen excretion by these animals were derived from animal population and weight statistics, information on manure management system usage in the United States, and nitrogen excretion values for each animal type.

Annual animal population data for all livestock types, except horses, were obtained from the USDA Na-

tional Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994b,c, 1995a-j, 1996a-g, 1997a-g, 1998a-g). Horse population data were taken from U.S. Department of Commerce's Bureau of Census (DOC 1987) and FAO (1996). Manure management system usage for all livestock types, except swine, was taken from Safely et al. (1992). Because these data were not available for swine, the swine population values were allocated to manure management system types using information on farm size distribution reported by the U.S. Department of Commerce (DOC 1995). Swine populations in the larger farm categories were assumed to utilize manure collection and storage management systems; all the wastes from smaller farms were assumed to be managed as pasture, range, and paddock. Population data for animals whose wastes were managed in pasture, range, and paddock were multiplied by an average animal mass constant (ASAE 1995) to derive total animal mass for each animal type. Total Kjeldahl nitrogen excreted per year was then calculated for each animal type using daily rates of N excretion per unit of animal mass (ASAE 1995). Annual nitrogen excretion was then summed over all animal types (see Table 5-16), and reduced by 20 percent to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH₃ and NO_x. The remainder was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor (0.02 kg N₂O-N/kg N excreted) to estimate N₂O emissions (see Table 5-21).

Indirect N₂O Emissions from Nitrogen Applied to Agricultural Soils

This component accounts for N₂O that is emitted indirectly from nitrogen applied as fertilizer and excreted by livestock. Through volatilization, some of this nitrogen enters the atmosphere as NH₃ and NO_x, and subsequently returns to soils through atmospheric deposition, thereby enhancing N₂O production. Additional nitrogen is lost from soils through leaching and runoff, and enters groundwater and surface water systems, from which a portion is emitted as N₂O. These two indirect emission pathways are treated separately, although the activity data used are identical.

¹¹ The *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) indicate that emissions from animal wastes managed in solid storage and drylot should also be included in the emissions from soils (see footnote "c" in Table 4-22 in the Reference Manual); however, this instruction appeared to be an error (and footnote "b" should have been listed next to "Solid storage and drylot" in Table 4-22). Therefore, N₂O emissions from livestock wastes managed in solid storage and drylot are reported under Manure Management, rather than here. (See Annex H for a discussion of the activity data used to calculate emissions from the manure management source category.)

Estimates of total nitrogen applied as fertilizer and excreted by all livestock (i.e., wastes from all unmanaged and managed systems) were derived using the same approach as was employed to estimate the direct soil emissions. Annual application rates for synthetic and non-manure organic fertilizer nitrogen were derived as described above from commercial fertilizer statistics for the United States (AAPFCO 1995, 1996, 1997; TVA 1990, 1992a and b, 1994). Annual total nitrogen excretion data (by animal type) were derived, also as described above, using animal population statistics (USDA 1994b,c, 1995a-j, 1996a-g, 1997a-g, 1998a-g; DOC 1987, 1998a,b, d-h; and FAO 1996), average animal mass constants (ASAE 1995), and daily rates of N excretion per unit of animal mass (ASAE 1995). Annual nitrogen excretion was then summed over all animal types.

To estimate N₂O emissions from volatilization and subsequent atmospheric deposition, it was assumed that 10 percent of the synthetic fertilizer nitrogen applied, 20 percent of the non-manure organic fertilizer nitrogen applied, and 20 percent of the total livestock nitrogen excretion were volatilized to NH₃ and NO_x, and 1 percent of the total volatilized nitrogen returned to the soils and was emitted as N₂O (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). These emission levels are presented in Table 5-22.

To estimate N₂O emissions from leaching and runoff, it was assumed that 30 percent of the non-volatilized nitrogen applied or excreted (i.e., 30 percent of the sum of 90 percent of synthetic fertilizer nitrogen plus 80 percent of non-manure organic fertilizer nitrogen plus 80 percent of total livestock nitrogen) was lost to leaching and surface runoff, and 2.5 percent of the lost nitrogen was emitted as N₂O (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). These emission levels are also presented in Table 5-22.

Uncertainty

A number of conditions can affect nitrification and denitrification rates in soils, including: water content, which regulates oxygen supply; temperature, which controls rates of microbial activity; nitrate or ammonium concentration, which regulate reaction rates; available organic carbon, which is required for microbial activity; and soil pH, which is a controller of both nitrification and denitrification rates and the ratio of N₂O/N₂ from

denitrification. These conditions vary greatly by soil type, climate, cropping system, and soil management regime. Although numerous emissions measurement data have been collected under a wide variety of controlled conditions, the interaction of these conditions and their combined effect on the processes leading to N₂O emissions are not fully understood. Moreover, the amount of added nitrogen from each source (fertilizers, animal wastes, nitrogen fixation, crop residues, cultivation of histosols, atmospheric deposition, or leaching and runoff) that is not absorbed by crops or wild vegetation, but remains in the soil and is available for production of N₂O, is uncertain. Therefore, it is not yet possible to develop statistically valid estimates of emission factors for all possible combinations of soil, climate, and management conditions. The emission factors used were midpoint estimates based on measurements described in the scientific literature, and as such, are representative of current scientific understanding. Nevertheless, estimated ranges around each midpoint estimate are wide; most are an order of magnitude or larger (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Uncertainties also exist in the activity data used to derive emission estimates. In particular, the fertilizer statistics include only those organic fertilizers that enter the commercial market, so any non-commercial fertilizer use (other than livestock waste and incorporation of crop residues) has not been captured. For example, sewage sludge applied to soils (other than the portion in commercial organic fertilizers) has not been accounted for. Also, the nitrogen content of organic fertilizers varies by type, as well as within individual types; however, average values were used to estimate total organic fertilizer nitrogen consumed. Conversion factors for the bean, pulse, and alfalfa production statistics were based on a limited number of studies, and may not be representative of all conditions in the United States. It was assumed that the entire crop residue for corn, wheat, beans, and pulses was returned to the soils, with the exception of the fraction burned. A portion of this residue may be disposed of through other practices, such as composting or landfilling; however, data on these practices are not available. Statistics on the histosol area cultivated annually were not available either; the point estimate reported should be considered highly uncertain. Lastly, the live-

Table 5-15: Commercial Fertilizer Consumption (Metric Tons of Nitrogen)

Fertilizer Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Synthetic	10,110,726	10,271,698	10,335,778	10,727,695	11,171,243	10,811,665	11,164,582	11,214,037
Non-Manure Organics	763	1,210	1,256	1,121	1,101	1,368	1,533	1,534

Note: These figures do not include manure used as commercial fertilizer.

Table 5-16: Animal Excretion (Metric Tons of Nitrogen)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Applied to Soils	3,062,628	3,150,736	3,135,107	3,158,899	3,215,171	3,185,729	3,167,180	3,194,314
Pasture, Range, & Paddock	4,742,247	4,761,332	4,881,526	4,952,799	5,095,799	5,192,152	5,099,376	5,022,867
All Management Systems	7,865,794	7,975,050	8,081,690	8,178,644	8,379,974	8,448,804	8,339,367	8,291,710

Table 5-17: Bean, Pulse, and Alfalfa Production (Metric Tons of Product)

Product Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Soybeans	52,415,690	54,064,730	59,611,670	50,919,130	69,625,980	59,243,170	64,837,320	74,223,690
Peanuts	1,634,590	2,234,650	1,943,380	1,538,770	1,934,370	1,570,100	1,660,690	1,608,600
Dry Edible Beans	1,468,690	1,531,550	1,025,800	993,960	1,323,900	1,397,610	1,268,240	1,332,490
Dry Edible Peas	107,590	168,510	114,990	149,320	102,290	209,060	121,150	263,810
Austrian Winter Peas	5,760	6,300	4,490	7,030	2,310	5,400	4,670	5,220
Lentils	66,459	104,090	71,030	90,990	84,190	97,300	60,460	108,450
Wrinkled Seed Peas	41,820	41,960	24,360	38,510	34,200	47,540	24,860	30,940
Alfalfa	75,671,002	75,585,727	71,794,602	72,851,472	73,786,780	76,670,720	72,136,611	71,887,135

Table 5-18: Corn and Wheat Production (Metric Tons of Product)

Product Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Corn for Grain	201,533,597	189,867,775	240,719,220	160,953,750	256,621,290	187,305,080	236,064,120	237,896,540
Wheat	74,292,383	53,890,553	67,135,240	65,220,410	63,166,750	59,400,390	62,191,130	68,761,480

Table 5-19: Histosol Area Cultivated (Hectares)

Year	Hectares
1990	843,386
1991	843,386
1992	843,386
1993	843,386
1994	843,386
1995	843,386
1996	843,386
1997	843,386

Table 5-20: Direct N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Cropping Practices (MMTCE)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Commercial Fertilizers (excluding manure)	15.1	15.4	15.5	16.0	16.7	16.2	16.7	16.8
Animal Waste Applied to Soils	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2
N Fixation	10.3	10.6	11.1	9.9	12.5	11.3	11.8	13.1
Crop Residue	6.4	6.3	7.1	6.0	8.0	6.8	7.5	8.4
Histosol Cultivation	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	36.5	37.0	38.4	36.7	42.1	39.0	40.8	43.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-21: Direct N₂O Emissions from Pasture, Range, and Paddock Animals (MMTCE)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Beef Cattle	9.0	9.1	9.3	9.5	9.8	10.0	9.8	9.7
Horses	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Swine	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Sheep	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Goats	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Poultry	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	10.1	10.1	10.4	10.5	10.8	11.0	10.8	10.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 5-22: Indirect N₂O Emissions (MMTCE)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Volatilization & Atmospheric Deposition	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Commercial Fertilizer (excluding manure)	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5
Animal Waste	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Surface Run-off & Leaching	15.3	15.6	15.7	16.1	16.7	16.4	16.7	16.7
Commercial Fertilizer (excluding manure)	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.6	10.0	9.7	10.0	10.1
Animal Waste	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.6	6.6
Total	18.8	19.1	19.2	19.7	20.4	20.1	20.4	20.4

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

stock excretion values, while based on detailed population and weight statistics, were derived using simplifying assumptions concerning the types of management systems employed.

Agricultural Residue Burning

Large quantities of agricultural crop residues are produced by farming activities. There are a variety of ways to dispose of these residues. For example, agricultural residues can be plowed back into the field, composted, landfilled, or burned in the field. Alternatively, they can be collected and used as a fuel or sold in

supplemental feed markets. Field burning of crop residues is not considered a net source of carbon dioxide (CO₂) because the carbon released to the atmosphere as CO₂ during burning is assumed to be reabsorbed during the next growing season. Crop residue burning is, however, a net source of methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), carbon monoxide (CO), and nitrogen oxides (NO_x), which are released during combustion. In addition, field burning may result in enhanced emissions of N₂O and NO_x many days after burning (Anderson *et al.* 1988, Levine *et al.* 1988), although this process is highly uncertain and was not quantified.

Field burning is not a common method of agricultural residue disposal in the United States; therefore, emissions from this source are minor. The primary crop types whose residues are typically burned in the United States are wheat, rice, sugarcane, peanut, soybeans, barley, and corn, and of these residues, generally less than 5 percent is burned each year.¹² Annual emissions from this source over the period 1990 through 1997 averaged approximately 0.2 MMTCE (37 Gg) of CH₄, 0.1 MMTCE (1 Gg) of N₂O, 771 Gg of CO, and 32 Gg of NO_x (see Table 5-23 and Table 5-24). The average annual emission estimates for field burning of crop residues from 1990 through 1997 represent approximately 1 percent of total U.S. CO emissions.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating greenhouse gas emissions from field burning of agricultural residues is consistent with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/

UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). In order to estimate the amounts of carbon and nitrogen released during burning, the following equations were used:

$$\text{Carbon Released} = (\text{Annual Crop Production}) \times (\text{Residue/Crop Product Ratio}) \times (\text{Fraction of Residues Burned } in \text{ situ}) \times (\text{Dry Matter content of the Residue}) \times (\text{Burning Efficiency}) \times (\text{Carbon Content of the Residue}) \times (\text{Combustion Efficiency})^{13}$$

$$\text{Nitrogen Released} = (\text{Annual Crop Production}) \times (\text{Residue/Crop Product Ratio}) \times (\text{Fraction of Residues Burned } in \text{ situ}) \times (\text{Dry Matter Content of the Residue}) \times (\text{Burning Efficiency}) \times (\text{Nitrogen Content of the Residue}) \times (\text{Combustion Efficiency})$$

Emissions of CH₄ and CO were calculated by multiplying the amount of carbon released by the appropriate emission ratio (i.e., CH₄/C or CO/C). Similarly, N₂O and NO_x emissions were calculated by multiplying the amount of nitrogen released by the appropriate emission ratio (i.e., N₂O/N or NO_x/N).

Table 5-23: Emissions from Agricultural Residue Burning (MMTCE)

Gas/Crop Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wheat	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Corn	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Barley	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1
Peanuts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wheat	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Barley	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soybeans	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Peanuts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMTCE
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

¹² The fraction of rice straw burned each year is thought to be significantly higher (see “Data Sources” discussion below).

¹³ Burning Efficiency is defined as the fraction of dry biomass exposed to burning that actually burns. Combustion Efficiency is defined as the fraction of carbon in the fire that is oxidized completely to CO₂. In the methodology recommended by the IPCC, the “burning efficiency” is assumed to be contained in the “fraction of residues burned” factor. However, the number used here to estimate the “fraction of residues burned” does not account for the fraction of exposed residue that does not burn. Therefore, a “burning efficiency factor” was added to the calculations.

Table 5-24: Emissions from Agricultural Residue Burning (Gg)

Gas/Crop Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	36	34	39	32	41	33	37	40
Wheat	7	5	6	6	6	5	5	6
Rice	4	4	5	4	4	3	3	3
Sugarcane	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Corn	17	16	19	14	20	16	19	19
Barley	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Soybeans	7	7	8	7	9	8	9	10
Peanuts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2
Wheat	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Corn	+	+	1	+	1	+	1	1
Barley	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soybeans	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Peanuts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
NO_x	30	30	34	28	37	30	34	37
Wheat	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Rice	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0
Corn	11	11	13	9	14	10	13	13
Barley	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0
Soybeans	14	14	16	14	18	16	17	20
Peanuts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0
CO	763	712	824	681	858	703	786	843
Wheat	137	99	124	120	116	109	114	127
Rice	88	88	89	84	86	65	59	65
Sugarcane	18	20	20	20	20	20	19	20
Corn	354	333	404	296	425	326	393	406
Barley	15	16	16	14	13	13	14	13
Soybeans	148	153	168	144	194	167	183	210
Peanuts	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	2

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Data Sources

The crop residues burned in the United States were determined from various state level greenhouse gas emission inventories (ILENR 1993, Oregon Department of Energy 1995, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources 1993) and publications on agricultural burning in the United States (Jenkins et al. 1992, Turn et al. 1997, EPA 1992). Crop production data were taken from the USDA's *Crop Production Summaries* (USDA 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998), except data on the production of rice in Florida. Data for the years 1996 and 1997 were obtained from Ken Vaodivia (1997) and Terrie Smith (1998) respectively, of Sem-Chi Rice. Rice production data were not available for the years 1990 to 1995, so they were estimated by applying the 1997 ratio of Florida

rice production to Florida rice area to the total Florida rice area (both primary and ratoon) for 1990 to 1995. The 1990 to 1995 Florida rice areas were obtained from Tom Schudeman (1997), a Florida Agricultural Extension Agent. The percentage of crop residue burned was assumed to be 3 percent for all crops, except rice, based on state inventory data (ILENR 1993, Oregon Department of Energy 1995, Noller 1996, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources 1993, and Cibrowski 1996). For rice, the only data that were available on percentage of crop residue burned were for California (Jenkins 1997), which was responsible for about 21 percent of the annual U.S. rice production. Until 1991, 99 percent of California's rice area was burned each year after harvest. Since then, California has tightened restrictions on burn-

ing, such that today, only about half of its rice area is burned each year. Therefore, a weighted average fraction burned was calculated for rice for each year assuming that the fraction of rice residue burned in California declined linearly from 99 to 50 percent between 1991 and 1996, and remained constant at 50 percent in 1997, while the fraction burned in the rest of the country stayed constant at 3 percent.

Residue/crop product ratios, residue dry matter contents, residue carbon contents, and residue nitrogen contents for all crops except sugarcane, peanuts, and soybeans were taken from Strehler and Stütze (1987). These data for sugarcane were taken from University of California (1977) and Turn et al. (1997). Residue/crop product ratios and residue dry matter contents for peanuts and soybeans were taken from Strehler and Stütze (1987); residue carbon contents for these crops were set at 0.45 and residue nitrogen contents were taken from Barnard and Kristoferson (1985) (the value for peanuts was set equal to the soybean value). The burning efficiency was assumed to be 93 percent, and the combustion efficiency was assumed to be 88 percent for all crop types (EPA 1994). Emission ratios for all gases were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Uncertainty

The largest source of uncertainty in the calculation of non-CO₂ emissions from field burning of agricultural residues is in the estimates of the fraction of residue of each crop type burned each year. Data on the fraction burned, or even the gross amount of residue burned each year, are not collected at either the national or state level. In addition, burning practices are highly variable among crops, as well as among states. The fractions of residue burned used in these calculations were based upon information collected by state agencies and in published literature. It is likely that these emission estimates will continue to change as more information becomes available.

Other sources of uncertainty include the residue/crop product ratios, residue dry matter contents, burning and combustion efficiencies, and emission ratios. A residue/crop product ratio for a specific crop can vary among cultivars, and for all crops except sugarcane, generic residue/crop product ratios, rather than ratios specific to the United States, have been used. Residue dry matter contents, burning and combustion efficiencies, and emission ratios, all can vary due to weather and other combustion conditions, such as fuel geometry. Values for these variables were taken from literature on agricultural biomass burning.

6. Land-Use Change and Forestry

This chapter provides an assessment of the net carbon dioxide (CO₂) flux caused by changes in forest carbon stocks (trees, understory, forest floor, forest soil, wood products, and landfilled wood), and a preliminary assessment of the net CO₂ flux caused by changes in non-forest soil carbon stocks. Unlike the assessments in other chapters, which are based on annual activity data, estimates for the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter are based on periodic activity data in the form of forest, wood product, and landfilled wood surveys. As a result, the CO₂ flux from forest carbon stocks was calculated on an average annual basis. This annual average value was then applied to the years between surveys. In addition, because the most recent national compilation of state forest surveys was completed for the year 1992, and the most recent wood product and landfilled wood surveys were completed for the year 1990, the estimates of the CO₂ flux from forest carbon stocks are based in part on modeled projections of stock estimates for the year 2000.

Carbon dioxide fluxes caused by changes in forest floor, forest soil, and non-forest soil carbon stocks were not assessed in previous U.S. greenhouse gas inventories due to insufficient data and lack of accepted guidelines. The assessment of CO₂ flux from forest floor and forest soil carbon stocks in this inventory was based on stock estimates developed by the U.S. Forest Service, and is consistent with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The assessment of CO₂ flux from non-forest soils was based on the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, which includes methodologies for calculating non-forest soil carbon flux from three land-use practices: (1) cultivation of mineral soils, (2) cultivation of organic soils, and (3) liming of agricultural soils. However, due to insufficient data about these land-use activities in the United States, this chapter provides only a preliminary assessment of CO₂ fluxes from two of the three land-use practices: cultivation of organic soils and liming of agricultural soils. Because of the high level of uncertainty associated with these two flux estimates, and the lack of a flux estimate for the third activity, the non-forest soil flux estimates have not been incorporated into the total fluxes reported for the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

See Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 for a summary of CO₂ fluxes estimated from Land-Use Change and Forestry in the United States.

Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks

Globally, the most important human activity that affects forest carbon fluxes is deforestation, particularly the clearing of tropical forests for agricultural use. Tropical deforestation is estimated to have released nearly 6 billion metric tons of CO₂ per year during the 1980s, or about 23 percent of global CO₂ emissions from anthropogenic

Table 6-1: Net CO₂ Flux from Land-Use Change and Forestry (MMTCE)

Description	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Forests	(274.2)	(274.2)	(274.2)	(171.3)	(171.3)	(171.3)	(171.3)	(171.3)
Trees	(95.6)	(95.6)	(95.6)	(74.0)	(74.0)	(74.0)	(74.0)	(74.0)
Understory	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)
Forest Floor	(20.8)	(20.8)	(20.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)
Soil	(155.2)	(155.2)	(155.2)	(86.3)	(86.3)	(86.3)	(86.3)	(86.3)
Harvested Wood	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)
Wood Products	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)
Landfilled Wood	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)
Total Net Flux*	(311.5)	(311.5)	(311.5)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)

Note: Parentheses indicate sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only.
*The total net flux excludes preliminary flux estimates for non-forest soils due to the high level of uncertainty of these estimates.

Table 6-2: Net CO₂ Flux from Land-Use Change and Forestry (Tg CO₂)

Description	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Forests	(1,005.4)	(1,005.4)	(1,005.4)	(627.9)	(627.9)	(627.9)	(627.9)	(627.9)
Trees	(350.5)	(350.5)	(350.5)	(271.3)	(271.3)	(271.3)	(271.3)	(271.3)
Understory	(8.8)	(8.8)	(8.8)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.6)
Forest Floor	(76.3)	(76.3)	(76.3)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)
Soil	(569.1)	(569.1)	(569.1)	(316.3)	(316.3)	(316.3)	(316.3)	(316.3)
Harvested Wood	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)
Wood Products	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)
Landfilled Wood	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)
Total Net Flux*	(1,142.2)	(1,142.2)	(1,142.2)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)

Note: Parentheses indicate sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only.
*The total net flux excludes preliminary flux estimates for non-forest soils due to the high level of uncertainty of these estimates.

activities. Conversely, during this period about 7 percent of global CO₂ emissions were offset by CO₂ uptake due to forest regrowth in the Northern Hemisphere (Houghton et al. 1995).

In the United States, the amount of forest land has remained fairly constant during the last several decades. The United States covers roughly 2,263 million acres, of which 33 percent (737 million acres) is forest land (Powell et al. 1993). The amount of forest land declined by approximately 5.2 million acres between 1977 and 1987 (USFS 1990, Waddell et al. 1989), and increased by about 5.3 million acres between 1987 and 1992 (Powell et al. 1993). These changes represent average fluctuations of only about 0.1 percent per year. Other major land-use categories in the United States include range and pasture lands (29 percent), cropland (17 percent), urban areas (3 percent), and other lands (18 percent) (Daugherty 1995).

Given the low rate of change in U.S. forest land area, the major influences on the current net carbon flux from forest land are management activities and ongoing impacts of previous land-use changes. These activities affect the net flux of carbon by altering the amount of carbon stored in forest ecosystems. For example, intensified management of forests can increase both the rate of growth and the eventual biomass density of the forest, thereby increasing the uptake of carbon. The reversion of cropland to forest land through natural regeneration also will, over decades, result in increased carbon storage in biomass and soils.

Forests are complex ecosystems with several interrelated components, each of which acts as a carbon storage pool, including:

- Trees (i.e., living trees, standing dead trees, roots, stems, branches, and foliage)

- Understory vegetation (i.e., shrubs and bushes)
- The forest floor (i.e., woody debris, tree litter, and humus)
- Soil

As a result of biological processes in forests (e.g., growth and mortality) and anthropogenic activities (e.g., harvesting, thinning, and replanting), carbon is continuously cycled through these ecosystem components, as well as between the forest ecosystem and the atmosphere. For example, the growth of trees results in the uptake of carbon from the atmosphere and storage of carbon in living biomass. As trees age, they continue to accumulate carbon until they reach maturity, at which point they are relatively constant carbon stores. As trees die and otherwise deposit litter and debris on the forest floor, decay processes release carbon to the atmosphere and also increase soil carbon. The net change in forest carbon is the sum of the net changes in the total amount of carbon stored in each of the forest carbon pools over time.

The net change in forest carbon, however, may not be equivalent to the net flux between forests and the atmosphere because timber harvests may not always result in an immediate flux of carbon to the atmosphere.¹ Harvesting in effect transfers carbon from one of the “forest pools” to a “product pool.” Once in a product pool, the carbon is emitted over time as CO₂ if the wood product combusts or decays. The rate of emission varies considerably among different product pools. For example, if timber is harvested for energy use, combustion results in an immediate release of carbon. Conversely, if timber is harvested and subsequently used as lumber in a house, it may be many decades or even centuries before the lumber is allowed to decay and carbon is released to the atmosphere. If wood products are disposed of in landfills, the carbon contained in the wood may be released years or decades later, or may even be stored permanently in the landfill.

In the United States, improved forest management practices, the regeneration of previously cleared forest areas, and timber harvesting and use have resulted in an annual net uptake (i.e., sequestration) of carbon. Also

due to improvements in U.S. agricultural productivity, the rate of forest land clearing for crop cultivation and pasture slowed in the late 19th century, and by 1920 this practice had all but ceased. As farming expanded in the Midwest and West, large areas of previously cultivated land in the East were brought out of crop production, primarily between 1920 and 1950, and were allowed to revert to forest land or were actively reforested. The impacts of these land-use changes are still affecting carbon fluxes from forests in the East. In addition to land-use changes in the early part of this century, in recent decades carbon fluxes from Eastern forests were affected by a trend toward managed growth on private land, resulting in a near doubling of the biomass density in eastern forests since the early 1950s. More recently, the 1970s and 1980s saw a resurgence of federally sponsored tree-planting programs (e.g., the Forestry Incentive Program) and soil conservation programs (e.g., the Conservation Reserve Program), which have focused on reforesting previously harvested lands, improving timber management activities, combating soil erosion, and converting marginal cropland to forests. In addition to forest regeneration and management, forest harvests have also affected net carbon fluxes. Because most of the timber that is harvested from U.S. forests is used in wood products and much of the discarded wood products are disposed of by landfilling—rather than incineration—significant quantities of this harvested carbon are transferred to long-term storage pools rather than being released to the atmosphere. The size of these long-term carbon storage pools has also increased steadily over the last century.

As shown in Table 6-3 and Table 6-4, U.S. forest components, wood product pools, and landfill wood were estimated to account for an average annual net sequestration of 311.5 MMTCE (1,142.2 Tg CO₂) from 1990 through 1992, and 208.6 MMTCE (764.7 Tg CO₂) from 1993 through 1997. The net carbon sequestration reported for 1997 represents an offset of about 14 percent of the 1997 CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. The average annual net carbon sequestration reported for 1993 through 1997 represents a 33 percent decrease relative

¹ For this reason, the term “apparent flux” is used in this chapter.

Table 6-3: Net CO₂ Flux from U.S. Forests (MMTCE)

Description	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Apparent Forest Flux	(274.2)	(274.2)	(274.2)	(171.3)	(171.3)	(171.3)	(171.3)	(171.3)
Trees	(95.6)	(95.6)	(95.6)	(74.0)	(74.0)	(74.0)	(74.0)	(74.0)
Understory	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)
Forest Floor	(20.8)	(20.8)	(20.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.8)
Forest Soils	(155.2)	(155.2)	(155.2)	(86.3)	(86.3)	(86.3)	(86.3)	(86.3)
Apparent Harvested Wood Flux	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)	(37.3)
Apparent Wood Product Flux	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)	(17.9)
Apparent Landfilled Wood Flux	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)	(19.4)
Total Net Flux	(311.5)	(311.5)	(311.5)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)	(208.6)

Note: Parentheses indicate net carbon "sequestration" (i.e., sequestration or accumulation into the carbon pool minus emissions or harvest from the carbon pool). The word "apparent" is used to indicate that an estimated flux is a measure of net change in carbon stocks, rather than an actual flux to or from the atmosphere. The sum of the apparent fluxes in this table (i.e., total flux) is an estimate of the actual flux. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-4: Net CO₂ Flux from U.S. Forests (Tg CO₂)

Description	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Apparent Forest Flux	(1,005.4)	(1,005.4)	(1,005.4)	(627.9)	(627.9)	(627.9)	(627.9)	(627.9)
Trees	(350.5)	(350.5)	(350.5)	(271.3)	(271.3)	(271.3)	(271.3)	(271.3)
Understory	(8.8)	(8.8)	(8.8)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.6)
Forest Floor	(76.3)	(76.3)	(76.3)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)
Forest Soils	(569.1)	(569.1)	(569.1)	(316.3)	(316.3)	(316.3)	(316.3)	(316.3)
Apparent Harvested Wood Flux	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)	(136.8)
Apparent Wood Product Flux	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)	(65.5)
Apparent Landfilled Wood Flux	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)	(71.2)
Total Net Flux	(1,142.2)	(1,142.2)	(1,142.2)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)	(764.7)

Note: Parentheses indicate net carbon "sequestration" (i.e., sequestration or accumulation into the carbon pool minus emissions or harvest from the carbon pool). The word "apparent" is used to indicate that an estimated flux is a measure of net change in carbon stocks, rather than an actual flux to or from the atmosphere. The sum of the apparent fluxes in this table (i.e., total flux) is an estimate of the actual flux. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

to the average annual net carbon sequestration reported for 1990 through 1992. This overall decrease in annual net sequestration was due to changes in the aggregate age structure of U.S. forests caused by the maturation of existing forests and the slowed expansion of Eastern forest cover. The abrupt shift in annual net sequestration from 1992 to 1993 is the result of calculating average annual fluxes using periodic activity data as well as models that estimate and project decadal rather than annual stock estimates.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating annual forest carbon flux in the United States differs from the methodologies employed for other sources because the forest carbon flux estimates for this source were derived from

periodic surveys of forest carbon stocks rather than annual activity data. Three surveys of forest carbon stocks were used: (1) timber stocks, (2) wood products, and (3) landfilled wood. In addition, because national compilations of state forest surveys have not been completed for 1997, projections of forest carbon stocks, rather than complete historical data, were used to derive some of the annual flux estimates.

Timber stock data from forest surveys were used to derive estimates of carbon contained in the four forest ecosystem components (trees, understory, forest floor, and soil) for the survey years. The apparent annual forest carbon flux for a specific year was estimated as the average annual change in the total forest carbon stocks between the preceding and succeeding timber survey years. The most recent national compilations of state for-

est surveys were conducted for the years 1987 and 1992, and a projection has been prepared for the year 2000. Therefore, the apparent annual forest carbon flux estimate for the years 1990 through 1992 was calculated from forest carbon stocks reported for 1987 and 1992, and the apparent annual forest carbon flux estimate for the years 1993 through 1997 was calculated from forest carbon stocks for 1992 and projected forest carbon stocks for the year 2000.

Carbon stocks contained in the wood product and landfilled wood pools were estimated for 1990 using historical forest harvest data, and were estimated for 2000 using projections of forest harvest. Therefore, apparent annual wood product and landfilled wood fluxes for the years 1990 through 1997 were calculated from a 1990 historical estimate and a 2000 projection.

The total annual net carbon flux from forests was obtained by summing the apparent carbon fluxes associated with changes in forest stocks, wood product pools, and landfilled wood pools.

The inventory methodology described above is consistent with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The IPCC identifies two approaches to developing an emissions inventory for Land-Use Change and Forestry: (1) using average annual statistics on land-use change and forest management activities, and applying carbon density and flux rate data to these activity estimates to derive total flux values; or (2) using carbon stock estimates derived from periodic inventories of forest stocks, and measuring net changes in carbon stocks over time. The latter approach was employed because the United States conducts periodic surveys of national forest stocks. In addition, the IPCC identifies two approaches to accounting for carbon emissions from harvested wood: (1) assuming that all of the har-

vested wood replaces wood products that decay in the inventory year so that the amount of carbon in annual harvests equals annual emissions from harvests; or (2) accounting for the variable rate of decay of harvested wood according to its disposition (e.g., product pool, landfill, combustion). The latter approach was applied for this inventory using estimates of carbon stored in wood products and landfilled wood.² Although there are large uncertainties associated with the data used to develop the flux estimates presented here, the use of direct measurements from forest surveys and associated estimates of product and landfilled wood pools is likely to result in more accurate flux estimates than the alternative IPCC methodology.

Data Sources

The estimates of forest, product, and landfill carbon stocks used in this inventory to derive carbon fluxes were obtained from Birdsey and Heath (1995), Heath et al. (1996), and Heath (1997). The amount of carbon in trees, understory vegetation, the forest floor, and forest soil in 1987 and 1992 was estimated using timber volume data collected by the U.S. Forest Service (USFS) for those years (Waddell et al. 1989, Powell et al. 1993). The timber volume data include timber stocks on forest land classified as timberland, reserved forest land, or other forest land³ in the contiguous United States, but do not include stocks on forest land in Alaska, Hawaii, U.S. territories, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees).⁴ The timber volume data include estimates by tree species, size class, and other categories.

The amount of carbon in trees, understory vegetation, the forest floor, and forest soil in 2000 was estimated by Birdsey and Heath (1995) using the FORCARB forest carbon model (Plantinga and Birdsey 1993) linked

² This calculation does not account for carbon stored in imported wood products. It does include carbon stored in exports, even if the logs are processed in other countries (Heath et al. 1996).

³ Forest land in the U.S. includes all land that is at least 10 percent stocked with trees of any size. Timberland is the most productive type of forest land, growing at a rate of 20 cubic feet per acre per year or more. In 1992, there were about 490 million acres of Timberlands, which represented 66 percent of all forest lands (Powell et al. 1993). Forest land classified as Timberland is unreserved forest land that is producing or is capable of producing crops of industrial wood. The remaining 34 percent of forest land is classified as Productive Reserved Forest Land, which is withdrawn from timber use by statute or regulation, or Other Forest Land, which includes unreserved and reserved unproductive forest land.

⁴ Although forest carbon stocks in Alaska and Hawaii are large compared to the U.S. total, net carbon fluxes from forest stocks in Alaska and Hawaii are believed to be minor. Net carbon fluxes from urban tree growth are also believed to be minor.

to the TAMM/ATLAS forest sector model (Adams and Haynes 1980, Alig 1985, Haynes and Adams 1985, Mills and Kincaid 1992). The forest stock projections for 2000, therefore, are based on multiple variables, including projections of prices, consumption, and production of timber and wood products; and projections of forest area, forest inventory volume, growth, and removals.

The amount of carbon in aboveground and belowground tree biomass in forests was calculated by multiplying timber volume by conversion factors derived from studies in the United States (Cost et al. 1990, Koch 1989). Carbon stocks in the forest floor and understory vegetation were estimated based on simple models (Vogt et al. 1986) and review of numerous intensive ecosystem studies (Birdsey 1992). Soil carbon stocks were calculated using a model similar to Burke et al. (1989) based on data from Post et al. (1982).

Carbon stocks in wood products in use and in wood stored in landfills were estimated by applying the HARVCARB model (Row and Phelps 1991) to historical harvest data from the USFS (Powell et al. 1993) and harvest projections for 2000 (Adams and Haynes 1980, Mills and Kincaid 1992). The HARVCARB model allocates harvested carbon to disposition categories (products, landfills, energy use, and emissions), and tracks the accumulation of carbon in different disposition categories over time.

Table 6-5 presents the carbon stock estimates for forests (including trees, understory, forest floor, and forest soil), wood products, and landfilled wood used in this inventory. The increase in all of these stocks over time indicates that, during the examined periods, forests, forest product pools, and landfilled wood all accumulated carbon (i.e., carbon sequestration by forests was greater than carbon removed in wood harvests and released through decay; and carbon accumulation in product pools and landfills was greater than carbon emissions from these pools by decay and burning).

Table 6-5: U.S. Forest Carbon Stock Estimates⁵ (Tg of Carbon)

Description	1987	1990	1992	2000
Forests	36,353	NA	37,724	39,094
Trees	13,009	NA	13,487	14,079
Understory	558	NA	570	580
Forest Floor	2,778	NA	2,882	2,960
Forest Soil	20,009	NA	20,785	21,475
Harvested Wood	NA	3,739	NA	4,112
Wood Products	NA	2,061	NA	2,240
Landfilled Wood	NA	1,678	NA	1,872

NA (Not Available)
 Note: Forest carbon stocks do not include forest stocks in Alaska, Hawaii, U.S. territories, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees); wood product stocks include exports, even if the logs are processed in other countries, and exclude imports. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Uncertainty

There are considerable uncertainties associated with the estimates of the net carbon flux from U.S. forests. The first source of uncertainty stems from the underlying forest survey data. These surveys are based on a statistical sample designed to represent a wide variety of growth conditions present over large territories. Therefore, the actual timber volumes contained in forests are represented by average values that are subject to sampling and estimation errors. In addition, the forest survey data that are currently available exclude timber stocks on forest land in Alaska, Hawaii, U.S. territories, and trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees); however, net carbon fluxes from these stocks are believed to be minor.

The second source of uncertainty results from deriving carbon storage estimates for the forest floor, understory vegetation, and soil from models that are based on data from forest ecosystem studies. In order to extrapolate results of these studies to all forest lands, it was assumed that they adequately describe regional or national averages. This assumption can potentially introduce the following errors: (1) bias from applying data

⁵ Sources: Heath (1997), Heath et al. (1996), and Birdsey and Heath (1995).

from studies that inadequately represent average forest conditions, (2) modeling errors (erroneous assumptions), and (3) errors in converting estimates from one reporting unit to another (Birdsey and Heath 1995). In particular, the impacts of forest management activities, including harvest, on soil carbon are not well understood. Moore et al. (1981) found that harvest may lead to a 20 percent loss of soil carbon, while little or no net change in soil carbon following harvest was reported in another study (Johnson 1992). Since forest soils contain over 50 percent of the total stored forest carbon in the United States, this difference can have a large impact on flux estimates.

The third source of uncertainty results from the use of projections of forest carbon stocks for the year 2000 (Birdsey and Heath 1995) to estimate annual net carbon sequestration from 1993 to 1997. These projections are the product of two linked models (FORCARB and TAMM/ATLAS) that integrate multiple uncertain variables related to future forest growth and economic forecasts. Because these models project decadal rather than annual carbon fluxes, estimates of annual net carbon sequestration from 1993 to 1997 are calculated as *average* annual estimates based on projected long-term changes in U.S. forest stocks.

The fourth source of uncertainty results from incomplete accounting of wood products. Because the wood product stocks were estimated using U.S. harvest statistics, these stocks include exports, even if the logs were processed in other countries, and exclude imports. Haynes (1990) estimates that imported timber accounts for about 12 percent of the timber consumed in the United States, and that exports of roundwood and primary products account for about 5 percent of harvested timber.

Changes in Non-Forest Soil Carbon Stocks

The amount of organic carbon contained in soils depends on the balance between inputs of photosynthetically fixed carbon (i.e., organic matter such as decayed detritus and roots) and loss of carbon through decompo-

sition. The quantity and quality of organic matter inputs, and the rate of decomposition, are determined by the combined interaction of climate, soil properties, and land-use. Agricultural practices and other land-use activities, such as clearing, drainage, tillage, planting, crop residue management, fertilization, and flooding, can modify both organic matter inputs and decomposition, and thereby result in a net flux of carbon dioxide (CO₂) to or from soils. The addition of carbonate minerals to soils through liming operations also results in net emissions of CO₂. Changes in non-forest soil carbon stocks include net fluxes of CO₂ from three categories of land-use/land-management activities: (1) activities on organic soils, especially cultivation and conversion to pasture and forest; (2) activities on mineral soils, especially land-use change activities; and (3) liming of soils.⁶ Organic soils and mineral soils are treated separately because each responds differently to land-use practices.

Organic soils contain extremely deep and rich layers of organic matter. When these soils are cultivated, tilling or mixing of the soil brings buried organic matter to the soil surface, thereby accelerating the rate of decomposition and CO₂ generation. Because of the depth and richness of the organic layer, carbon loss from cultivated organic soils can be sustained over long periods of time (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Conversion of organic soils to agricultural uses typically involves drainage as well, which also exacerbates soil carbon oxidation. When organic soils are disturbed, through cultivation and/or drainage, the rate at which organic matter decomposes, and therefore the rate at which CO₂ emissions are generated, is determined primarily by climate, the composition (decomposability) of the organic matter, and the specific land-use practices undertaken. The use of organic soils for upland crops results in greater carbon loss than conversion to pasture or forests, due to deeper drainage and/or more intensive management practices (Armentano and Verhoeven 1990, as cited in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Mineral soils generally have fairly shallow organic layers and therefore have low organic carbon contents

⁶ Fluxes of CO₂ from forest soils are excluded from this source because they are included in the previous source category (Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks).

relative to organic soils. Consequently, it is possible to entirely deplete the carbon stock of a mineral soil within the first 10 to 20 years of disturbance, depending on the type of disturbance, climate, and soil type. Once the majority of the native carbon stock has been depleted, an equilibrium is reached that reflects a balance between accumulation from plant residues and loss of carbon through decomposition. Various land-use practices, such as incorporation of crop residues and cultivation of certain crops, can result in a net accumulation of carbon stocks in mineral soils.

Lime in the form of crushed limestone (CaCO_3) and dolomite ($\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$) is commonly added to agricultural soils to ameliorate acidification. When these compounds come in contact with acid soils, they degrade, thereby generating CO_2 . The rate of degradation is determined by soil conditions and the type of mineral applied; it can take several years for agriculturally-applied lime to degrade completely.

Only two categories of land-use/land-management activities—agricultural use of organic soils and liming—are included in the estimates of CO_2 emissions presented here, because insufficient activity data were available to estimate fluxes from mineral soils. Net annual emissions of CO_2 from organic soils and liming of soils in the United States over the period 1990 through 1997 totaled approximately 8 to 9 MMTCE (30 to 32 Tg) (see Table 6-6 and Table 6-7).

Table 6-6: CO_2 Flux From Non-Forest Soils (MMTCE)

Year	Mineral Soils	Organic Soils	Liming of Soils
1990	NA	5.9	2.2
1991	NA	5.9	2.8
1992	NA	5.9	2.1
1993	NA	5.9	2.1
1994	NA	5.9	2.3
1995	NA	5.9	2.5
1996	NA	5.9	2.4
1997	NA	5.9	2.8

NA (Not Available)
 Note: The CO_2 flux from non-forest soils has been excluded from the total flux reported for the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter due to the high level of uncertainty associated with these estimates.

Table 6-7: CO_2 Flux From Non-Forest Soils (Tg CO_2)

Year	Mineral Soils	Organic Soils	Liming of Soils
1990	NA	21.8	8.2
1991	NA	21.8	10.2
1992	NA	21.8	7.8
1993	NA	21.8	7.7
1994	NA	21.8	8.5
1995	NA	21.8	9.3
1996	NA	21.8	8.9
1997	NA	21.8	10.4

NA (Not Available)
 Note: The CO_2 flux from non-forest soils has been excluded from the total flux reported for the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter due to the high level of uncertainty associated with these estimates.

Annual CO_2 emissions from agricultural use of organic soils were estimated to be 5.9 MMTCE (21.8 Tg) over the 1990 through 1997 period. Organic soil data were available for only 1982; therefore, emissions from organic soils were assumed to stay constant at the 1982 level for the years 1990 to 1997. Liming accounted for net annual CO_2 emissions of approximately 2.1 to 2.8 MMTCE (8 to 10 Tg). There was no apparent trend over the seven year period.

The emission estimates and analysis for this source are restricted to CO_2 fluxes associated with the management of non-forest organic soils and liming of soils. However, it is important to note that land-use and land-use change activities may also result in fluxes of non- CO_2 greenhouse gases, such as methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O), and carbon monoxide (CO), to and from soils. For example, when lands are flooded with freshwater, such as during hydroelectric dam construction, CH_4 is produced and emitted to the atmosphere due to anaerobic decomposition of organic material in the soil and water column. Conversely, when flooded lands, such as lakes and wetlands, are drained, anaerobic decomposition and associated CH_4 emissions will be reduced. Dry soils are a sink of CH_4 , so eventually, drainage may result in soils that were once a source of CH_4 becoming a sink of CH_4 . However, once the soils become aerobic, oxidation of soil carbon and other organic material will result in elevated emissions of CO_2 . Moreover, flooding and drainage may also affect net soil fluxes of N_2O and CO , although these fluxes are highly uncertain. The fluxes

of CH₄, and other gases, due to flooding and drainage are not assessed in this inventory due to a lack of activity data on the extent of these practices in the United States as well as scientific uncertainties about the variables that control fluxes.⁷

Methodology and Data Sources

The methodologies used to calculate CO₂ emissions from cultivation of organic soils and liming follow the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

To estimate annual CO₂ emissions from organic soils, the area under agricultural usage was divided into broad climatic regions, and the area in each climatic region was multiplied by an emission factor. (All areas were cropped rather than utilized for pasture or forestry, so there was no need to further divide areas into general land-use types). Annual statistics on the area of organic soils under agricultural usage were not available for the years 1990 through 1997; therefore, an estimate for the area cultivated in 1982 (Mausbach and Spivey 1994) was used for all years in the 1990 to 1997 series. The area estimate was derived from USDA land-use statistics.⁸ Of the 850,000 hectares of organic soils under cultivation in 1982, Mausbach and Spivey (1994) estimated that two-thirds were located in warm, temperate regions and one-third was located in cool, temperate regions (see Table 6-8). The IPCC default emission factors (10 metric tons C/hectare/year for warm, temperate regions, 1.0 metric

tons C/hectare/year for cool, temperate regions) were applied to these areas to estimate annual CO₂ emissions resulting from cultivation of organic soils.

Carbon dioxide emissions from degradation of limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils were calculated by multiplying the annual amounts of limestone and dolomite applied, by CO₂ emission factors (0.120 metric ton C/metric ton limestone, 0.130 metric ton C/metric ton dolomite).⁹ These emission factors are based on the assumption that all of the carbon in these materials evolves as CO₂. The annual application rates of limestone and dolomite were derived from estimates and industry statistics provided in the U.S. Geological Survey's Mineral Resources Program Crushed Stone Reports and Mineral Industry Surveys (USGS 1998a, 1998b, 1997a, 1997b, 1996, 1995, 1993). To develop these data, the Mineral Resources Program obtained production and use information by surveying crushed stone manufacturers. Because some manufacturers were reluctant to provide information, the estimates of total crushed limestone and dolomite production and use are divided into three components: (1) production by end-use, as reported by manufacturers (i.e., "specified" production); (2) production reported by manufacturers without end-uses specified (i.e., "unspecified" production); and (3) estimated additional production by manufacturers who did not respond to the survey (i.e., "estimated" production). To estimate the total amounts of crushed limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils, it was assumed

Table 6-8: Areas of Cultivated Organic Soils and Quantities of Applied Minerals

Description	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Organic Soils Area Cultivated (hectares)								
Warm Temperate Regions	566,000	566,000	566,000	566,000	566,000	566,000	566,000	566,000
Cool Temperate Regions	284,000	284,000	284,000	284,000	284,000	284,000	284,000	284,000
Applied Minerals (Gg)								
Limestone	16,063	19,820	15,268	15,340	16,730	18,244	17,479	20,286
Dolomite	2,402	3,154	2,283	2,040	2,294	2,751	2,499	3,034

⁷ However, methane emissions due to flooding of rice fields are included. These are addressed under Rice Cultivation in the Agriculture chapter.

⁸ This estimate does not include Alaska, but the area of cultivated organic soils in Alaska is believed to be small and emissions per unit area in colder regions are relatively low, so this omission is probably quite minor. The estimate also does not include U.S. territories.

⁹ Note: the default emission factor for dolomite provided in the Workbook volume of the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) is incorrect. The value provided is 0.122 metric ton carbon/ metric ton of dolomite; the correct value is 0.130 metric ton carbon/ metric ton of dolomite.

that the fractions of “unspecified” and “estimated” production that were applied to agricultural soils were equal to the fraction of “specified” production that was applied to agricultural soils. In addition, the total crushed limestone and dolomite production figures for 1991, 1993, 1994, and 1995 were revised by the Mineral Resources Program in later reports, but end uses were not specified. To estimate the amounts applied to agricultural soils, it was assumed that the fractions estimated using the previously published data did not change.

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in the emission estimates presented result primarily from the underlying activity data used in the calculations. In particular, statistics on the areas of organic soil cultivated or managed as pasture or forest were not available, and the point estimate of total organic soil cultivated is highly uncertain. In addition, the breakdown of the cultivated organic soil area by climate region was based upon a qualitative assessment of the location of cultivated organic soils. Furthermore, there are uncertainties in the estimates of total limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils, which are based on estimates as well as reported quantities.

The emission factors used in the calculations are an additional source of uncertainty. As discussed above,

CO₂ emissions from cultivation of organic soils are controlled by climate, the composition of the soil organic matter, and cultivation practices. Only the first variable is taken into account, and only in a general way, in deriving the emission factors. Moreover, measured carbon loss rates from cultivated organic soils vary by as much as an order of magnitude.

The rate of degradation of applied limestone and dolomite is determined by soil conditions and the type of mineral applied. It can take several years for agriculturally-applied lime to degrade completely. The approach used to estimate CO₂ emissions from liming assumed that the amount of mineral applied in any year was equal to the amount that degrades in that year, so annual application rates could be used to derive annual emissions; however, this assumption may be incorrect. Moreover, soil conditions were not taken into account in the calculations.

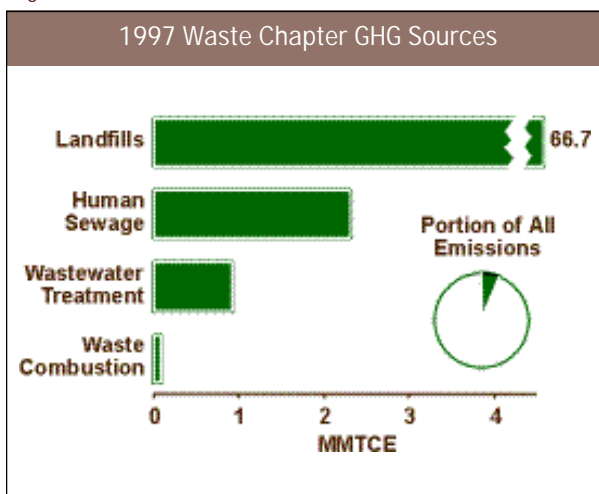
Because the estimates of CO₂ fluxes from non-forest soils are based on limited and highly uncertain activity data and cover only a subset of the CO₂ fluxes associated with this source, the estimate of CO₂ flux from non-forest soils has been excluded from the total flux reported for the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

7. Waste

Certain waste management and treatment activities are sources of greenhouse gas emissions. Particularly the anaerobic decomposition of organic wastes by bacteria can result in the generation of methane (CH_4). Currently, anaerobic decomposition processes in landfills are estimated to be the largest anthropogenic source of methane emissions in the United States, accounting for 37 percent (see Figure 7-1). Smaller amounts of methane are emitted from wastewater systems by bacteria used in various treatment processes. Wastewater treatment systems are also a potentially significant source of nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions; however, methodologies are not currently available to develop a complete estimate. Emissions from the treatment of the human sewage component of wastewater were estimated, however, using a simplified methodology. Waste combustion, both in incinerators and through open burning, were also a small source of N_2O . Nitrogen oxide (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) are emitted by each of these sources, but are addressed separately at the end of this chapter. A summary of greenhouse gas emissions from the Waste sector is presented in Table 7-1 and Table 7-2.

Overall, in 1997, waste activities generated emissions of 70.0 MMTCE, or 3.9 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Figure 7-1



Landfills

Landfills are the largest anthropogenic source of methane (CH_4) emissions in the United States. In 1997, emissions were approximately 66.7 MMTCE (11.6 Tg). Emissions from municipal solid waste (MSW) landfills, which received about 61 percent of the total solid waste generated in the United States, accounted for about 93 percent of total landfill emissions, while industrial landfills accounted for the remainder. There were over 2,500 landfills in the U.S. (BioCycle 1998), with the largest landfills having received most of the waste and having generated the majority of emissions.

Methane emissions result from the decomposition of organic landfill materials such as yard waste, household garbage, food waste, and paper. This decomposition process is a natural mechanism through which microorganisms derive energy. After being placed in a landfill, organic waste first decomposes aerobically (in the presence of oxygen) and is then attacked by anaerobic bacteria, which convert organic matter to substances such as cellulose, amino acids, and sugars. These simple substances are further broken

Table 7-1: Emissions from Waste (MMTCE)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	57.1	58.4	58.7	60.6	62.5	64.5	66.0	67.6
Landfills	56.2	57.6	57.8	59.7	61.6	63.6	65.1	66.7
Wastewater Treatment	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
N₂O	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4
Human Sewage	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3
Waste Combustion	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	59.2	60.6	60.9	62.8	64.8	66.9	68.4	70.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-2: Emissions from Waste (Tg)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
CH₄	10.0	10.2	10.3	10.6	10.9	11.3	11.5	11.8
Landfills	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.6
Wastewater Treatment	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
N₂O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Human Sewage	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Waste Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

down through fermentation into gases and short-chain organic compounds that form the substrates for the growth of methanogenic bacteria. Methane producing anaerobic bacteria then convert these fermentation products into stabilized organic materials and a biogas consisting of approximately 50 percent carbon dioxide and 50 percent methane by volume. In general, the CO₂ emitted is of biogenic origin and primarily results from the decomposition—either aerobic or anaerobic—of organic matter such as food or yard wastes.¹ The percentage of carbon dioxide in the biogas released from a landfill may be smaller because some CO₂ dissolves in landfill water (Bingemer and Crutzen 1987). Methane production typically begins one or two years after waste placement in a landfill and may last from 10 to 60 years.

Between 1990 and 1997, estimates of methane emissions from landfills have increased slightly (see Table 7-3 and Table 7-4). The relatively constant emissions estimates are a result of two counter-acting trends: (1) the amount of MSW in landfills contributing to methane emissions has increased (thereby increasing the poten-

tial for emissions), and (2) the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted by landfill operators has also increased (thereby reducing emissions).

Methane emissions from landfills are a function of several factors, including: the total amount of MSW landfilled over the last 30 years, which is related to total MSW landfilled per year; composition of the waste in place; the amount of methane that is recovered and either flared or used for energy purposes; and the amount of methane oxidized in landfills before being released into the atmosphere. The estimated total quantity of waste in place contributing to emissions increased from about 4,926 teragrams in 1990 to 5,791 teragrams in 1997, an increase of 18 percent (see Annex I). During this same period, the estimated methane recovered and flared from landfills increased as well. In 1990, for example, approximately 1.5 teragrams (Tg) of methane were recovered and combusted (i.e., used for energy or flared) from landfills. In 1992, the estimated quantity of methane recovered and combusted increased to 1.8 Tg.²

¹ Emissions and sinks of biogenic carbon are accounted for in the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

² The EPA is presently reviewing new data on landfill gas recovery and flaring. It is anticipated that the national total for methane recovery and flaring will be significantly larger based on this new information.

Table 7-3: CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (MMTCE)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
MSW Landfills	60.6	61.9	63.8	65.5	67.3	69.2	70.6	72.0
Industrial Landfills	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.8	4.9	5.0
Recovered	(8.6)	(8.6)	(10.3)	(10.3)	(10.3)	(10.3)	(10.3)	(10.3)
Net Emissions	56.2	57.6	57.8	59.7	61.6	63.6	65.1	66.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-4: CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Tg)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
MSW Landfills	10.6	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.7	12.1	12.3	12.6
Industrial Landfills	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9
Recovered	(1.5)	(1.5)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(1.8)
Net Emissions	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.6

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Over the next several years, the total amount of MSW generated is expected to continue increasing. The percentage of waste landfilled, however, may decline due to increased recycling and composting practices. In addition, the quantity of methane that is recovered and either flared or used for energy purposes is expected to increase, partially as a result of a new regulation that will require large landfills to collect and combust landfill gas.

Methodology

Based on the available information, methane emissions from landfills were estimated to equal methane production from municipal landfills, plus methane produced by industrial landfills, minus methane recovered and combusted, and minus the methane oxidized before being released into the atmosphere.

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from municipal landfills is based on an updated model that tracks changes in the population of landfills in the United States over time. This model is based on the pattern of actual waste disposal by each individual landfill surveyed by the EPA's Office of Solid Waste in 1987. A second model was employed to estimate emissions from the landfill population data (EPA 1993). For each landfill in the data set, the amount of waste in place contributing to methane generation was estimated using its year

of opening, its waste acceptance rate, and total waste disposed in landfills. Data on national waste disposed in landfills each year was apportioned by landfill. Emissions from municipal landfills were then estimated by multiplying the quantity of waste contributing to emissions by emission factors (EPA 1993). For further information see Annex I.

To estimate landfill gas recovered per year, data on current and planned landfill gas recovery projects in the United States were obtained from Governmental Advisory Associates (GAA 1994). The GAA report, considered to be the most comprehensive source of information on gas recovery in the United States, has estimates for gas recovery in 1990 and 1992. In addition, a number of landfills were believed to recover and flare methane without energy recovery and were not included in the GAA database. To account for the amount of methane flared without energy recovery, the estimate of gas recovered was increased by 25 percent (EPA 1993).

The amount of methane oxidized was assumed to be 10 percent of the methane generated. Methane recovered and oxidized was subtracted from the methane generated from municipal and industrial landfills to arrive at net methane emissions. Emissions from industrial sites were assumed to be seven percent of total emissions from municipal landfills.

Data Sources

The model, including actual waste disposal data from individual landfills, was developed from a survey performed by the EPA Office of Solid Waste (EPA 1988). National landfill waste disposal data for 1988 through 1997 were obtained from *BioCycle* (1998). Documentation on the landfill methane emissions methodology employed is available in EPA's *Anthropogenic Methane Emissions in the United States, Estimates for 1990: Report to Congress* (EPA 1993). Emission factors were taken from Bingemer and Crutzen (1987) and the Governmental Advisory Associates (GAA 1994).

Uncertainty

There are several uncertainties associated with the estimates of methane emissions from landfills. The primary one concerns the characterization of landfills. There is a lack of information on the area landfilled and total waste in place (the fundamental factors that affect methane production). In addition, little information is available on the quantity of methane flared at non-energy-related projects and the number of landfill closures. Finally, the statistical model used to estimate emissions is based upon methane generation at landfills that currently have developed energy recovery projects, and may not precisely capture the relationship between emissions and various physical characteristics of individual landfills. Overall, uncertainty is estimated to be roughly ± 30 percent.

Wastewater Treatment

The breakdown of organic material in wastewater treatment systems produces methane when it occurs under anaerobic conditions. During collection and treatment, wastewater may be incidentally as well as deliberately maintained under anaerobic conditions. The methane produced during deliberate anaerobic treatment is typically collected and flared or combusted for energy. However, whenever anaerobic conditions develop, some of the methane generated is incidentally released to the atmosphere. Untreated wastewater may also produce methane if held under anaerobic conditions.

Organic content, expressed in terms of biochemical oxygen demand (BOD), determines the methane produc-

ing potential of wastewater. BOD represents the amount of oxygen that would be required to completely consume the organic matter contained in the wastewater through aerobic decomposition processes. Under anaerobic conditions, however, wastewater with higher BOD concentrations will produce more methane than wastewater with lower BOD. The amount of methane produced is driven by the extent to which the organic material is broken down under anaerobic versus aerobic conditions.

In 1997, methane emissions from municipal wastewater were 0.9 MMTCE (0.2 Tg). Emissions have increased slightly since 1990 reflecting the increase in the U.S. human population. No estimates have been developed to indicate any changes in the manner in which wastewater is managed in the United States during this period. Table 7-5 provides emission estimates from domestic wastewater treatment.

At this time, data are not sufficient to estimate methane emissions from industrial wastewater sources. Further research is ongoing at the EPA to better quantify emissions from this source.

Methodology

Wastewater methane emissions are estimated using the default IPCC methodology (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The total population for each year was multiplied by a wastewater BOD production rate to determine total wastewater BOD produced. It was assumed that, per capita, 0.05 kilograms of wastewater BOD₅³ is produced per day and that 15 percent of wastewater BOD₅ is anaerobically digested. This proportion of BOD was then multiplied by an emission factor of 0.22 Gg CH₄/Gg BOD₅.

Data Sources

Human population data for 1990 to 1997 were supplied by the U.S. Census Bureau (1998). The emission factor employed was taken from Metcalf & Eddy (1972). Table 7-6 provides U.S. population and wastewater BOD data.

Uncertainty

Domestic wastewater emissions estimates are highly uncertain due to the lack of data on the occurrence of anaerobic conditions in treatment systems, es-

Table 7-5: CH₄ Emissions from Domestic Wastewater Treatment

Year	MMTCE	Tg
1990	0.9	0.2
1991	0.9	0.2
1992	0.9	0.2
1993	0.9	0.2
1994	0.9	0.2
1995	0.9	0.2
1996	0.9	0.2
1997	0.9	0.2

pecially incidental occurrences. It is also believed that industrial wastewater is responsible for significantly more methane emissions than domestic wastewater treatment.

Human Sewage

Human sewage is transported for treatment in the form of domestic wastewater. Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is emitted from both domestic and industrial wastewater containing nitrogen-based organic matter and is produced through natural processes known as nitrification and denitrification. Nitrification occurs aerobically and converts ammonia into nitrate, while denitrification occurs anaerobically, and converts nitrate to N₂O. It is estimated that the amount of N₂O emitted from wastewater treatment plants accounts for approximately 5 to 10 percent of annual global discharge (Spector 1997 McElroy et al. 1978). Human sewage is believed to constitute a significant portion of the material responsible for N₂O emissions from wastewater (Spector, 1997). There is insufficient infor-

Table 7-6: U.S. Population (millions) and Wastewater BOD Produced (Gg)

Year	Population	BOD5*
1990	249.3	4,554
1991	252.0	4,602
1992	254.9	4,655
1993	257.7	4,706
1994	260.2	4,752
1995	262.7	4,797
1996	265.1	4,842
1997	267.6	4,887

* The 5 day biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) measurement (Metcalf and Eddy 1972)

³ The 5 day biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) measurement (Metcalf and Eddy 1972).

mation available at this time to estimate emissions from industrial wastewater and the other components of domestic wastewater. In general, N₂O generation in wastewater systems is affected by temperature, pH, biochemical oxygen demand (BOD), and nitrogen concentration. BOD is the amount of dissolved oxygen used by aerobic microorganisms to completely consume the available organic matter (Metcalf & Eddy 1972).

Emissions of N₂O from human sewage treated in wastewater systems was estimated to be 2.3 MMTCE (27 Gg) in 1997. An increase in the U.S. population and the per capita protein intake resulted in an overall increase of 12 percent in N₂O emissions from human sewage between 1990 and 1997 (see Table 7-7).

Table 7-7: N₂O Emissions from Human Sewage

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	2.1	24
1991	2.1	25
1992	2.2	26
1993	2.2	26
1994	2.3	27
1995	2.2	27
1996	2.3	27
1997	2.3	27

Methodology

Nitrous oxide emissions from human sewage were estimated using the IPCC default methodology (IPCC/ UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The equation in IPCC was modified slightly to convert N₂O-N to N₂O by using a conversion factor of the atomic weight of N₂O to that of N₂ (44/28). This is illustrated below:

$$N_2O(s) = (\text{Protein}) \times (\text{Frac}_{NPR}) \times (\text{NR People}) \times (\text{EF}) \times (44/28)$$

where,

N₂O(s) = N₂O emissions from human sewage

Protein = Annual, per capita protein consumption

Frac_{NPR} = fraction of nitrogen in protein

NR People = U.S. population

EF = Emission factor

(44/28) = The atomic weight ratio of N₂O to N₂

Data Sources

U.S. population data were taken from the U.S. Census Bureau (1998). Data on the annual per capita protein consumption were provided by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO 1998) (see Table 7-8). Because data on protein intake were unavailable for 1997, the average value of per capita protein consumption over the years 1990 through 1996 was used. An emission factor has not been specifically estimated for the United States. As a result, the default IPCC value (0.01 kg N₂O-N/kg sewage-N produced) was applied. Similarly, the fraction of nitrogen in protein (0.16 kg N/kg protein) was also obtained from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997).

Table 7-8: U.S. Population (millions) and Average Protein Intake (kg/person/year)

Year	Population	Protein
1990	249.3	38.9
1991	252.0	39.6
1992	254.9	39.8
1993	257.7	39.9
1994	260.2	40.6
1995	262.7	40.3
1996	265.1	40.7
1997	267.6	40.0

Uncertainty

The U.S. population (NR people) and per capita protein intake data (Protein) are believed to be fairly accurate. There is significant uncertainty, however, in the emission factor (EF) employed due to regional differences that would likely affect N₂O emissions but are not accounted for in the default IPCC factor. In contrast, the fraction of nitrogen in protein (Frac_{NPR}) is believed to be quite accurate. Despite the increase in N₂O emissions from 1990 through 1997, these estimates from human sewage are significantly lower than other more recent estimates (Spector 1997) of total N₂O emissions from both domestic and industrial wastewater treatment. EPA is currently supporting further research to develop a comprehensive estimate of emissions from this source.

⁴ Emissions of CO₂ from the combustion of petroleum-based plastics are accounted for under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion as a non-energy use of petroleum.

Waste Combustion

Waste combustion involves the burning of garbage and non-hazardous solids, called municipal solid waste (MSW), and has been identified as a source of nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions.⁴ In 1992, there were over 160 municipal waste combustion plants in the United States (EPA 1997b). Emissions from this source are dependent on the types of waste burned and combustion temperatures (De Soete 1993). Nitrous oxide emissions from MSW combustion were estimated to be 0.1 MMTCE (1 Gg) in 1997, and have fluctuated only slightly since 1990 (see Table 7-9).

Table 7-9: N₂O Emissions from Waste Combustion

Year	MMTCE	Gg
1990	0.1	1
1991	0.1	1
1992	0.1	1
1993	0.1	1
1994	0.1	1
1995	0.1	1
1996	0.1	1
1997	0.1	1

Methodology

Estimates of nitrous oxide emissions from MSW combustion in the United States are based on the methodology outlined in the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors (EPA 1997a). According to this methodology, emissions of N₂O from MSW combustion is the product of the mass of MSW (metric ton MSW) combusted, the emission factor of N₂O emitted per unit mass of waste combusted (g N₂O/metric ton), and an N₂O emissions control removal efficiency. For MSW combustion in the United States, an emission factor of 30 g N₂O/metric ton MSW, and an estimated emissions control removal efficiency of zero percent were used.

Data Sources

Data on the quantity of MSW generated and combusted was taken from the April 1998 issue of *BioCycle* (Glenn 1998). Table 7-10 provides MSW generation and

percentage combustion data. The emission factor of N₂O emissions per quantity of MSW combusted was taken from Olivier (1993).

Table 7-10: Municipal Solid Waste Generation (Metric Tons) and Percent Combusted

Year	Waste Generation	Combusted (%)
1990	266,541,881	11.5
1991	254,796,765	10.0
1992	264,843,388	11.0
1993	278,572,955	10.0
1994	293,109,556	10.0
1995	296,586,430	10.0
1996	297,268,188	10.0
1997	309,075,035	9.0

Uncertainty

As with other combustion-related sources of nitrous oxide, emissions are affected by combustion conditions (De Soete, 1993). In part, because insufficient data exists to provide detailed estimates of N₂O emissions for individual combustion facilities, the estimates presented are highly uncertain. The emission factor for N₂O from MSW combustion facilities used in the analysis is a default used to estimate N₂O emissions from facilities worldwide (Olivier, 1993). As such, it has a range of uncertainty of an order of magnitude (between 25 and 293 g N₂O/metric ton MSW combusted) (Watanabe, et al. 1992). Due to a lack of relevant information on the control of N₂O emissions from MSW combustion facilities in the U.S., the estimate of zero percent for N₂O emissions control removal efficiency is also uncertain. MSW combustion activity data used in this analysis, as published in *BioCycle* (1998), were compared with data published by the EPA's Office of Solid Waste (EPA 1997b) and were found to be relatively consistent (see Table 7-11).

Waste Sources of Criteria Pollutants

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, waste generating and handling processes are also sources of criteria air pollutant emissions. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO),

Table 7-11: U.S. Municipal Solid Waste Combusted by Data Source (Metric Tons)

Year	BioCycle	EPA
1990	30,652,316	28,958,820
1991	25,479,677	30,256,974
1992	29,132,773	29,675,982
1993	27,857,295	29,884,776
1994	29,310,956	29,494,422
1995	29,658,643	30,384,066
1996	29,726,819	NA
1997	30,641,940	NA

NA (Not Available)

and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from waste sources for the years 1990 through 1997 are provided in Table 7-12.

Methodology and Data Sources

These emission estimates were taken directly from the EPA's *Draft National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends, 1900-1997* (EPA 1998). This EPA report provides emission estimates of these gases by sector, using a "top down" estimating procedure—emissions were calculated either for individual sources or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual source categories from various agencies. Depending on the source category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's *Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42* (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA data bases.

Uncertainty

Uncertainties in these estimates are primarily due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and accurate estimates of activity data.

Table 7-12: Emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC from Waste (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
NO_x	83	86	87	112	103	89	91	94
Landfills	+	+	+	1	1	1	1	1
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Waste Combustion ^a	82	85	86	107	99	88	89	93
Miscellaneous ^b	+	1	1	4	3	1	1	1
CO	979	1012	1032	1133	1111	1075	1091	1126
Landfills	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Waste Combustion ^a	978	1,011	1,030	1,130	1,108	1,073	1,089	1,124
Miscellaneous ^b	+	+	+	1	1	1	1	+
NMVOCs	895	907	916	949	949	968	393	408
Landfills	58	60	63	67	73	68	20	21
Wastewater Treatment	57	58	61	63	64	61	58	62
Waste Combustion ^a	222	227	230	256	248	237	240	246
Miscellaneous ^b	558	562	563	563	564	602	75	79

^a Includes waste incineration and open burning (EPA 1998)

^b Miscellaneous includes TSDFs (Treatment, Storage, and Disposal Facilities under the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act [42 U.S.C. § 6924, SWDA § 3004]) and other waste categories.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

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Annexes

The following seventeen annexes provide additional information to the material presented in the main body of this report. Annexes A through I discuss methodologies for individual source categories in greater detail than was presented in the main body of the report and include explicit activity data and emission factor tables. Annex J presents a technical summary on the derivation of Global Warming Potential values and some of the uncertainties related to their use to weight greenhouse emission estimates. Annexes K and L summarize U.S. emissions of ozone depleting substances (e.g., CFCs and HCFCs) and sulfur dioxide (SO₂), respectively. Annex M provides a complete list of emission sources assessed in this report. Annexes N and O present U.S. greenhouse gas emission estimates in the reporting format recommended in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) and the IPCC reference approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, respectively. Annex P addresses the criteria for the inclusion of an emission source category and some of the sources which meet the criteria but are nonetheless excluded from U.S. estimates. Annex Q provides some useful constants, unit definitions, and conversions. Annexes R and S provides a listing of abbreviations and chemical symbols used. Finally, Annex U contains a glossary of terms related to greenhouse gas emissions and inventories.

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Annex A

Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from fossil fuel combustion were estimated using a “bottom-up” methodology characterized by six steps. These steps are described below.

Step 1: Determine Energy Consumption by Fuel Type and Sector

The bottom-up methodology used by the United States for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion is conceptually similar to the approach recommended by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) for countries that intend to develop detailed, sectoral-based emission estimates (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Basic consumption data are presented in Columns 2-8 of Table A-1 through Table A-8, with totals by fuel type in Column 8 and totals by end-use sector in the last rows. Fuel consumption data for the bottom-up approach were obtained directly from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) of the U.S. Department of Energy. The EIA data were collected through surveys at the point of delivery or use; therefore, they reflect the reported consumption of fuel by end-use sector and fuel type. Individual data elements were supplied by a variety of sources within EIA. Most information was taken from published reports, although some data were drawn from unpublished energy studies and databases maintained by EIA.

Energy consumption data were aggregated by end-use sector (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, electric utilities, and U.S. territories), primary fuel type (e.g., coal, natural gas, and petroleum), and secondary fuel type (e.g., motor gasoline, distillate fuel, etc.). The 1997 total energy consumption across all sectors, including territories, and energy types was 80,469 trillion British thermal units (Tbtu), as indicated in the last entry of Column 8 in Table A-1. This total includes fuel used for non-energy purposes and fuel consumed as international bunkers, both of which are deducted in later steps.

There are two modifications made in this report that may cause consumption information herein to differ from figures given in the cited literature. These are the consideration of synthetic natural gas production and ethanol added to motor gasoline.

First, a portion of industrial coal accounted for in EIA combustion figures is actually used to make “synthetic natural gas” via coal gasification. The energy in this gas enters the natural gas stream, and is accounted for in natural gas consumption statistics. Because this energy is already accounted for as natural gas, it is deducted from industrial coal consumption to avoid double counting. This makes the figure for other industrial coal consumption in this report slightly lower than most EIA sources.

Second, ethanol has been added to the motor gasoline stream for several years, but prior to 1993 this addition was not captured in EIA motor gasoline statistics. Starting in 1993, ethanol was included in gasoline statistics. However, because ethanol is a biofuel, which is assumed to result in no net CO₂ emissions, the amount of ethanol added is subtracted from total gasoline consumption. Thus, motor gasoline consumption statistics given in this report may be slightly lower than in EIA sources.

There are also three basic differences between the consumption figures presented in Table A-1 through Table A-8 and those recommended in the IPCC emission inventory methodology.

First, consumption data in the U.S. inventory are presented using higher heating values (HHV)¹ rather than the lower heating values (LHV)² reflected in the IPCC emission inventory methodology. This convention is followed because data obtained from EIA are based on HHV.

¹ Also referred to as Gross Calorific Values (GCV).

² Also referred to as Net Calorific Values (NCV).

Second, while EIA's energy use data for the United States includes only the 50 U.S. states and the District of Columbia, the data reported to the Framework Convention on Climate Change are to include energy consumption within territories. Therefore, consumption estimates for U.S. territories were added to domestic consumption of fossil fuels. Energy consumption data from U.S. territories are presented in Column 7 of Table A-1. It is reported separately from domestic sectoral consumption, because it is collected separately by EIA with no sectoral disaggregation.

Third, the domestic sectoral consumption data in Table A-1 include bunker fuels used for international transport activities and non-energy uses of fossil fuels. The IPCC recommends that countries estimate emissions from bunker fuels separately and exclude these emissions from national totals, so bunker fuel emissions have been estimated in Table A-9 and deducted from national estimates (see Step 4). Similarly, fossil fuels used to produce non-energy products that store carbon rather than release it to the atmosphere are provided in Table A-10 and deducted from national emission estimates (see Step 3).

Step 2: Determine the Carbon Content of All Fuels

The carbon content of combusted fossil fuels was estimated by multiplying energy consumption (Columns 2 through 8 of Table A-1) by fuel-specific carbon content coefficients (see Table A-11 and Table A-12) that reflected the amount of carbon per unit of energy inherent in each fuel. The resulting carbon contents are sometimes referred to as potential emissions, or the maximum amount of carbon that could potentially be released to the atmosphere if all carbon in the fuels were converted to CO₂. The carbon content coefficients used in the U.S. inventory were derived by EIA from detailed fuel information and are similar to the carbon content coefficients contained in the IPCC's default methodology (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), with modifications reflecting fuel qualities specific to the United States.

Step 3: Adjust for the amount of Carbon Stored in Products

Depending on the end-use, non-energy uses of fossil fuels can result in long term storage of some or all of the carbon contained in the fuel. For example, asphalt made from petroleum can sequester up to 100 percent of the carbon contained in the petroleum feedstock for extended periods of time. Other non-energy products, such as lubricants or plastics also store carbon, but can lose or emit some of this carbon when they are used and/or burned as waste.

The amount of carbon sequestered or stored by non-energy uses of fossil fuel products was based upon data that addressed the ultimate fate of various energy products, with all non-energy use attributed to the industrial, transportation, and territories end-use sectors. This non-energy consumption is presented in Table A-10. Non-energy consumption was then multiplied by fuel-specific carbon content coefficients (Table A-11 and Table A-12) to obtain the carbon content of the fuel, or the maximum amount of carbon that could be sequestered if all the carbon in the fuel were stored in non-energy products (Columns 5 and 6 of Table A-10). This carbon content was then multiplied by the fraction of carbon assumed to actually have been sequestered in products (Column 7 of Table A-10), resulting in the final estimates of carbon stored by sector and fuel type, which are presented in Columns 8 through 10 of Table A-10. The portions of carbon sequestered were based on EIA data.

Step 4: Subtract Carbon from Bunker Fuels.

Emissions from international transport activities, or bunker fuel consumption, were not included in national totals as recommended by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). There is currently disagreement internationally as to how these emissions should be allocated, and until this issue is resolved, countries are asked to report them separately. EIA energy statistics, however, include bunker fuels—jet fuel, distillate fuel oil, and residual fuel oil—as part of fuel consumption by the transportation sector. To compensate for this inclusion, bunker fuel emissions were calculated separately (see Table A-9) and the carbon content of these fuels was subtracted from the transportation sector. The calculations of bunker fuel emissions followed the same procedures used for other fuel emissions (i.e., estimation of consumption, determination of carbon content, and adjustment for the fraction of carbon not oxidized).

Step 5: Account for Carbon that Does Not Oxidize During Combustion

Because combustion processes are not 100 percent efficient, some of the carbon contained in fuels is not emitted to the atmosphere. Rather, it remains behind as soot, particulate matter, ash, or other by-products of inefficient combustion. The estimated fraction of carbon not oxidized in U.S. energy conversion processes due to inefficiencies during combustion ranges from 0.5 percent for natural gas to 1 percent for petroleum and coal. Except for coal these assumptions are consistent with the default values recommended by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). In the U.S. unoxidized carbon from coal combustion was estimated to be no more than one percent (Bechtel 1993). Table A-11 presents fractions oxidized by fuel type, which are multiplied by the net carbon content of the combusted energy to give final emissions estimates.

Step 6: Summarize Emission Estimates

Actual CO₂ emissions in the United States were summarized by major fuel (i.e., coal, petroleum, natural gas, geothermal) and consuming sector (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, electric utilities, and territories). Adjustments for bunker fuels and carbon sequestered in products were made. Emission estimates are expressed in terms of million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE).

To determine total emissions by final end-use sector, emissions from electric utilities were distributed to each end-use sector according to its share of electricity consumed (see Table A-13).

Table A-2: 1996 Energy Consumption Data and CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Consumption (TBtu)							Emissions (MMTCE) including Adjustments* and Fraction Oxidized							
Fuel Type	Res.	Comm.	Ind.	Trans.	Utility	Terr.	Total	Res.	Comm.	Ind.	Trans.	Utility	Terr.	Total	
Residential Coal	55.1						55.1	1.4							1.4
Commercial Coal		83.1					83.1		2.1						2.1
Industrial Coking Coal			849.7				849.7			21.0					21.0
Industrial Other Coal			1,507.9				1,507.9			38.9					38.9
Coke Imports			(0.3)				(0.3)			(0.0)					(0.0)
Transportation Coal				0.0			0.0				0.0				0.0
Utility Coal					17,952.7		17,952.7					457.5			457.5
US Territory Coal (bit)						10.7	10.7							0.3	0.3
Total Coal	55.1	83.1	2,357.3	0.0	17,952.7	10.7	20,459	1.4	2.1	59.9	0.0	457.5	0.3	521.1	
Natural Gas	5,382.9	3,243.5	10,393.7	733.7	2,797.7	NA	22,552	77.5	46.7	144.3	10.6	40.3	NA	319.3	
Asphalt & Road Oil	0.0	0.0	1,175.9	0.0	0.0		1,175.9	0.0	0.0	(0.0)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	(0.0)
Aviation Gasoline	0.0	0.0	0.0	37.4	0.0		37.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7
Distillate Fuel Oil	927.6	483.4	1,118.6	4,546.6	98.4	111.4	7,285.9	18.3	9.5	21.6	88.4	1.9	2.2	142.0	
Jet Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	3,274.2	0.0	74.5	3,348.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	49.9	0.0	1.4	51.3	
Kerosene	85.1	25.3	17.7	0.0	0.0		128.1	1.7	0.5	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	
LPG	428.2	75.6	2,138.9	17.7	0.0	10.1	2,670.5	7.2	1.3	14.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	22.9	
Lubricants	0.0	0.0	172.5	163.0	0.0	0.0	335.5	0.0	0.0	1.7	1.6	0.0	0.0	3.4	
Motor Gasoline	0.0	18.5	204.8	14,881.9	0.0	140.1	15,245.4	0.0	0.4	3.9	285.2	0.0	2.7	292.2	
Residual Fuel	0.0	138.1	307.4	900.6	606.0		167.2	0.0	2.9	6.5	8.0	12.9	3.6	33.9	
Other Petroleum						109.7	109.7						2.0	2.0	
AvGas Blend Components			7.0				7.0			0.1				0.1	
Crude Oil			13.7				13.7			0.3				0.3	
MoGas Blend Components			0.0				0.0			0.0				0.0	
Misc. Products			89.0				89.0			1.8				1.8	
Naphtha (<401 deg. F)			479.3				479.3			2.2				2.2	
Other Oil (>401 deg. F)			729.6				729.6			7.2				7.2	
Pentanes Plus			355.0				355.0			1.8				1.8	
Petrochemical Feedstocks			0.0				0.0			0.0				0.0	
Petroleum Coke			836.5		20.5		857.0			20.2		0.6		20.8	
Still Gas			1,437.1				1,437.1			24.9				24.9	
Special Naphtha			74.5				74.5			1.5				1.5	
Unfinished Oils			(112.8)				(112.8)			(2.3)				(2.3)	
Waxes			48.7				48.7			1.0				1.0	
Other Wax & Misc.			0.0				0.0			(2.7)				(2.7)	
Total Petroleum	1,440.9	740.9	9,093.6	23,821.4	724.9	613.0	36,434.6	27.2	14.6	103.9	434.1	15.4	12.0	607.2	
Geothermal					0.018		0.018					0.037		0.037	
TOTAL (All Fuels)	6,878.9	4,067.5	21,844.6	24,555.0	21,475.3	623.7	79,445.0	106.1	63.4	308.1	444.7	513.2	12.2	1,447.7	

*Adjustments include: international bunker fuel consumption (see Table A-9) and carbon stored in products (see Table A-10)

NA (Not Available)

Table A-9: 1997 Emissions From International Bunker Fuel Consumption

Fuel Type	Bunker Fuel Consumption (TBtu)	Carbon Content Coefficient (MMTCE/QBtu)³	Carbon Content (MMTCE)	Fraction Oxidized	Emissions (MMTCE)
Distillate Fuel Oil	79.4	19.95	1.6	0.99	1.6
Jet Fuel	726.5	19.33	14.0	0.99	13.9
Residual Fuel Oil	523.2	21.49	11.2	0.99	11.1
Total	1,329.1		26.9		26.6

Table A-10: 1997 Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored In Products

Fuel Type	1 Non-energy Use (TBtu)		2 Carbon Content Coefficient (MMTCE/QBtu)		3 Carbon Content (MMTCE)		4 Fraction Sequestered		5 Carbon Stored (MMTCE)	
	Ind.	Trans.	Ind.	Trans.	Ind.	Trans.	Ind.	Trans.	Total	
Industrial Coking Coal	27.7		25.55	0.7	0.0	0.75	0.5	0.0	0.5	
Natural Gas	391.4		14.47	5.7	0.0	1.00	5.7	0.0	5.7	
Asphalt & Road Oil	1,223.6		20.62	25.2	0.0	1.00	25.2	0.0	25.2	
LPG	1,651.3		16.86	27.8	0.0	0.80	22.3	0.0	22.3	
Lubricants	182.3	172.1	20.24	3.7	3.5	0.50	1.8	1.7	3.6	
Pentanes Plus	295.4		18.24	5.4	0.0	0.80	4.3	0.0	4.3	
Petrochemical Feedstocks										
Naphtha (<401 deg. F)	536.4		18.14	9.7	0.0	0.75	7.3	0.0	7.3	
Other Oil (>401 deg. F)	861.2		19.95	17.2	0.0	0.50	8.6	0.0	8.6	
Still Gas	2.5		17.51	0.0	0.0	0.80	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Petroleum Coke	179.0		27.85	5.0	0.0	0.50	2.5	0.0	2.5	
Special Naphtha	72.3		19.86	1.4	0.0	0.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Other Wax & Misc.										
Distillate Fuel Oil	46.6		19.95	0.9	0.0	0.50	0.5	0.0	0.5	
Residual Fuel Oil	7.5		21.49	0.2	0.0	0.50	0.1	0.0	0.1	
Waxes	43.7		19.81	0.9	0.0	1.00	0.9	0.0	0.9	
Miscellaneous	97.7		20.23	2.0	0.0	1.00	2.0	0.0	2.0	
Total	5,618.6	172.1		105.8	3.5		81.7	1.7	83.4	

³ One QBtu is one quadrillion Btu, or 10¹⁵ Btu. This unit is commonly referred to as a "Quad."

Table A-11: Key Assumptions for Estimating Carbon Dioxide Emissions

Fuel Type	Carbon Content Coefficient (MMTCE/QBtu)	Fraction Oxidized
Coal		
Residential Coal	[a]	0.99
Commercial Coal	[a]	0.99
Industrial Coking Coal	[a]	0.99
Industrial Other Coal	[a]	0.99
Coke Imports	27.85	0.99
Transportation Coal	NC	0.99
Utility Coal	[a]	0.99
U.S. Territory Coal (bit)	25.14	0.99
Natural Gas	14.47	0.995
Petroleum		
Asphalt & Road Oil	20.62	0.99
Aviation Gasoline	18.87	0.99
Distillate Fuel Oil	19.95	0.99
Jet Fuel	[a]	0.99
Kerosene	19.72	0.99
LPG	[a]	0.99
Lubricants	20.24	0.99
Motor Gasoline	[a]	0.99
Residual Fuel	21.49	0.99
Other Petroleum	20.23	0.99
AvGas Blend Components	18.87	0.99
Crude Oil	[a]	0.99
MoGas Blend Components	19.39	0.99
Misc. Products	20.23	0.99
Naphtha (<401 deg. F)	18.14	0.99
Other Oil (>401 deg. F)	19.95	0.99
Pentanes Plus	18.24	0.99
Petrochemical Feedstocks	19.37	0.99
Petroleum Coke	27.85	0.99
Still Gas	17.51	0.99
Special Naphtha	19.86	0.99
Unfinished Oils	20.23	0.99
Waxes	19.81	0.99
Other Wax & Misc.	19.81	0.99
Geothermal	2.05	-

Sources: Carbon coefficients and stored carbon from EIA. Combustion efficiency for coal from Bechtel (1993) and for petroleum and natural gas from IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997, vol. 2).

- Not applicable

NC (Not Calculated)

[a] These coefficients vary annually due to fluctuations in fuel quality (see Table A-12).

Table A-12: Annually Variable Carbon Content Coefficients by Year (MMTCE/QBtu)

Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residential Coal	25.92	26.00	26.13	25.97	25.95	26.00	25.92	25.92
Commercial Coal	25.92	26.00	26.13	25.97	25.95	26.00	25.92	25.92
Industrial Coking Coal	25.51	25.51	25.51	25.51	25.52	25.53	25.55	25.55
Industrial Other Coal	25.58	25.60	25.62	25.61	25.63	25.63	25.61	25.61
Utility Coal	25.68	25.69	25.69	25.71	25.72	25.74	25.74	25.74
LPG	16.99	16.98	16.99	16.97	17.01	17.00	16.99	16.99
Motor Gasoline	19.41	19.41	19.42	19.43	19.45	19.38	19.36	19.35
Jet Fuel	19.40	19.40	19.39	19.37	19.35	19.34	19.33	19.33
Crude Oil	20.16	20.18	20.22	20.22	20.21	20.23	20.25	20.24

Source: EIA

Table A-13: Electricity Consumption by End-Use Sector (Billion Kilowatt-hours)

End-Use Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Residential	924	955	936	995	1,008	1,043	1,082	1,072
Commercial	839	856	851	886	914	954	981	1,008
Industrial	946	947	973	977	1,008	1,013	1,030	1,036
Transportation	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
U.S. Territories*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	2,713	2,762	2,763	2,861	2,935	3,013	3,098	3,120

*EIA electric utility fuel consumption data does not include the U.S. territories.

- Not applicable

Source: EIA

Annex B

Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and Criteria Pollutants from Stationary Sources

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from stationary source fuel combustion were estimated using IPCC emission factors and methods. Estimates were obtained by multiplying emission factors (by sector and fuel type) by fossil fuel and wood consumption data. This “top-down” methodology is characterized by two basic steps, described below. Data are presented in Table B-1 through Table B-5.

Step 1: Determine Energy Consumption by Sector and Fuel Type

Greenhouse gas emissions from stationary combustion activities were grouped into four sectors: industrial, commercial/institutional, residential, and electric utilities. For CH₄ and N₂O, estimates were based upon consumption of coal, gas, oil, and wood. Energy consumption data were obtained from EIA’s *Monthly Energy Review* (1998b), and adjusted to lower heating values assuming a 10 percent reduction for natural gas and a 5 percent reduction for coal and petroleum fuels. Table B-1 provides annual energy consumption data for the years 1990 through 1997.

Step 2: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted

Activity data for each sector and fuel type were then multiplied by emission factors to obtain emissions estimates. Emission factors were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Table B-2 provides emission factors used for each sector and fuel type.

Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions

For criteria pollutants, the major source categories included were those identified in EPA (1998): coal, fuel oil, natural gas, wood, other fuels (including bagasse, liquefied petroleum gases, coke, coke oven gas, and others), and stationary internal combustion (which includes emissions from internal combustion engines not used in transportation). EPA (1998) periodically estimates emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs by sector and fuel type using a “bottom-up” estimating procedure. In other words, the emissions were calculated either for individual sources (e.g., industrial boilers) or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., fuel consumption or deliveries, etc.) as indicators of emissions. EPA (1998) projected emissions for years subsequent to their bottom-up estimates. The national activity data used to calculate the individual categories were obtained from various sources. Depending upon the category, these activity data may include fuel consumption or deliveries of fuel, tons of refuse burned, raw material processed, etc. Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors that relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Table B-3 through Table B-7 present criteria pollutant emission estimates for 1990 through 1997.

The basic calculation procedure for most source categories presented in EPA (1998) is represented by the following equation:

$$E_{p,s} = A_s \times Ef_{p,s} \times (1 - C_{p,s}/100)$$

where,

E = emissions

p = pollutant

s = source category

A = activity level

EF = emission factor

C = percent control efficiency

The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a category from a variety of sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program (NAPAP) emissions

inventory, and other EPA databases. The U.S. approach for estimating emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from stationary combustion as described above is similar to the methodology recommended by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Table B-1: Fuel Consumption by Stationary Sources for Calculating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions (Tbtu)

Fuel/End-Use Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Coal	18,935.3	18,698.6	18,802.1	19,428.0	19,497.8	19,567.0	20,448.3	20,921.1
Residential	61.9	56.3	56.7	56.6	55.5	53.7	55.1	55.1
Commercial/Institutional	92.9	84.5	85.7	85.5	83.5	81.0	83.1	83.1
Industry	2,692.7	2,545.4	2,467.7	2,444.8	2,463.7	2,441.9	2,357.3	2,303.0
Utilities	16,087.8	16,012.4	16,192.0	16,841.1	16,895.2	16,990.5	17,952.7	18,480.0
Petroleum	11,741.5	11,389.6	11,696.4	11,641.5	11,928.7	11,489.4	12,000.2	12,356.8
Residential	1,266.3	1,293.3	1,312.4	1,387.0	1,340.4	1,363.0	1,440.9	1,466.9
Commercial/Institutional	906.9	860.6	813.3	752.8	753.3	756.8	740.9	730.9
Industry	8,317.9	8,057.8	8,637.7	8,449.6	8,866.8	8,711.6	9,093.6	9,337.0
Utilities	1,250.4	1,177.8	933.0	1,052.0	968.2	658.0	724.9	822.0
Natural Gas	18,597.9	18,983.5	19,530.1	20,257.1	20,612.1	21,479.2	21,817.8	21,843.9
Residential	4,518.7	4,685.0	4,821.1	5,097.5	4,988.3	4,981.3	5,382.9	5,145.6
Commercial/Institutional	2,698.1	2,807.7	2,884.2	2,995.8	2,980.8	3,112.9	3,243.5	3,373.1
Industry	8,519.7	8,637.2	8,996.3	9,419.6	9,590.2	10,108.6	10,393.7	10,285.5
Utilities	2,861.4	2,853.6	2,828.5	2,744.1	3,052.9	3,276.4	2,797.7	3,039.7
Wood	2550.0	2577.0	2709.0	2696.0	2740.7	2741.5	2864.0	2625.9
Residential & Commercial	581.0	613.0	645.0	592.0	582.0	641.0	643.8	475.1
Industrial	1947.5	1942.8	2042.4	2083.5	2138.2	2083.5	2200.5	2131.5
Utilities	21.5	21.2	21.6	20.5	20.5	17.0	19.8	19.3

Table B-2: CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Fuel Type and Sector (g/GJ)⁴

Fuel/End-Use Sector	CH ₄	N ₂ O
Coal		
Residential	300	1.4
Commercial/Institutional	10	1.4
Industry	10	1.4
Utilities	1	1.4
Petroleum		
Residential	10	0.6
Commercial/Institutional	10	0.6
Industry	2	0.6
Utilities	3	0.6
Natural Gas		
Residential	5	0.1
Commercial/Institutional	5	0.1
Industry	5	0.1
Utilities	1	0.1
Wood		
Residential	300	4.0
Commercial/Institutional	300	4.0
Industrial	30	4.0
Utilities	30	4.0

⁴ GJ (Gigajoule) = 10⁹ joules. One joule = 9.486×10⁻⁴ Btu

Table B-3: NO_x Emissions from Stationary Sources (Gg)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	6,045	5,914	5,901	6,034	5,956	5,792	5,497	5,605
Coal	5,119	5,043	5,062	5,211	5,113	5,061	5,027	5,079
Fuel Oil	200	192	154	163	148	87	94	120
Natural gas	513	526	526	500	536	510	239	262
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Internal Combustion	213	152	159	160	159	134	137	144
Industrial	2,754	2,703	2,786	2,859	2,855	2,852	2,876	2,967
Coal	530	517	521	534	546	541	543	557
Fuel Oil	240	215	222	222	219	224	223	218
Natural gas	1,072	1,134	1,180	1,207	1,210	1,202	1,212	1,256
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Other Fuels ^a	119	117	115	113	113	111	113	118
Internal Combustion	792	720	748	783	767	774	784	818
Commercial/Institutional	336	333	348	360	365	365	366	379
Coal	36	33	35	37	36	35	35	36
Fuel Oil	88	80	84	84	86	94	93	97
Natural gas	181	191	204	211	215	210	212	219
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Other Fuels ^a	31	29	25	28	28	27	26	27
Residential	749	829	879	827	817	813	804	779
Coal ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Fuel Oil ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Natural Gas ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Wood	42	45	48	40	40	44	44	31
Other Fuels ^a	708	784	831	787	777	769	760	748
Total	9,884	9,779	9,914	10,080	9,993	9,822	9,543	9,729

NA (Not Available)

^a "Other Fuels" include LPG, waste oil, coke oven gas, coke, and non-residential wood (EPA 1998).

^b Coal, fuel oil, and natural gas emissions are included in the "Other Fuels" category (EPA 1998).

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table B-4: CO Emissions from Stationary Sources (Gg)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	329	317	318	329	335	338	357	368
Coal	213	212	214	224	224	227	225	230
Fuel Oil	18	17	14	15	13	9	10	11
Natural gas	46	46	47	45	48	49	69	71
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Internal Combustion	52	41	43	46	50	52	53	56
Industrial	798	835	867	946	944	958	972	1,007
Coal	95	92	92	92	91	88	90	91
Fuel Oil	67	54	58	60	60	64	65	66
Natural gas	205	257	272	292	306	313	316	329
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Other Fuels ^a	253	242	239	259	260	270	277	288
Internal Combustion	177	189	205	243	228	222	224	233
Commercial/Institutional	205	196	204	207	212	211	227	235
Coal	13	13	13	14	13	14	14	14
Fuel Oil	16	16	16	16	16	17	17	17
Natural gas	40	40	46	48	49	49	49	51
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Other Fuels ^a	136	128	128	129	134	132	148	152
Residential	3,668	3,965	4,195	3,586	3,515	3,876	3,867	2,759
Coal ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Fuel Oil ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Natural Gas ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Wood	3,430	3,711	3,930	3,337	3,272	3,628	3,622	2,520
Other Fuels ^a	238	255	265	249	243	248	244	239
Total	4,999	5,313	5,583	5,068	5,007	5,383	5,424	4,369

NA (Not Available)

^a "Other Fuels" include LPG, waste oil, coke oven gas, coke, and non-residential wood (EPA 1998).

^b Coal, fuel oil, and natural gas emissions are included in the "Other Fuels" category (EPA 1998).

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table B-5: NMVOC Emissions from Stationary Sources (Gg)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Electric Utilities	43	40	40	41	41	40	44	46
Coal	25	25	25	26	26	26	25	26
Fuel Oil	5	5	4	4	4	2	3	3
Natural gas	2	2	2	2	2	2	7	7
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Internal Combustion	11	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
Industrial	165	177	169	169	178	187	189	197
Coal	7	5	7	5	7	5	5	5
Fuel Oil	11	10	11	11	11	11	11	11
Natural gas	52	54	47	46	57	66	66	70
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Other Fuels ^a	46	47	45	46	45	45	46	48
Internal Combustion	49	61	60	60	58	59	60	62
Commercial/Institutional	18	18	20	22	21	21	21	22
Coal	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Fuel Oil	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
Natural gas	7	8	9	10	10	10	10	10
Wood	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Other Fuels ^a	8	7	7	8	8	8	8	8
Residential	686	739	782	670	657	726	724	515
Coal ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Fuel Oil ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Natural Gas ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Wood	651	704	746	633	621	689	687	478
Other Fuels ^a	35	35	36	36	36	37	37	37
Total	912	975	1,011	901	898	973	978	780

NA (Not Available)

^a "Other Fuels" include LPG, waste oil, coke oven gas, coke, and non-residential wood (EPA 1998).

^b Coal, fuel oil, and natural gas emissions are included in the "Other Fuels" category (EPA 1998).

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Annex C

Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and Criteria Pollutants from Mobile Sources

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Greenhouse gas emissions from mobile sources are reported by transport mode (e.g., road, rail, air, and water), vehicle type, and fuel type. EPA does not systematically track emissions of CH₄ and N₂O as in EPA (1998a); therefore, estimates of these gases were developed using a methodology similar to that outlined in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Step 1: Determine Vehicle Miles Traveled or Fuel Consumption by Vehicle Type, Fuel Type, and Model Year

Activity data were obtained from a number of U.S. government agency publications. Depending on the category, these basic activity data included such information as fuel consumption, fuel deliveries, and vehicle miles traveled (VMT). The activity data for highway vehicles included estimates of VMT by vehicle type and model year from EPA (1998a) and the MOBILE5a emissions model (EPA 1997).

National VMT data for gasoline and diesel highway vehicles are presented in Table C-1 and Table C-2, respectively. Total VMT for each highway category (i.e., gasoline passenger cars, light-duty gasoline trucks, heavy-duty gasoline vehicles, diesel passenger cars, light-duty diesel trucks, heavy-duty diesel vehicles, and motorcycles) were distributed across 25 model years based on the temporally fixed age distribution of VMT by the U.S. vehicle fleet in 1990 (see Table C-3) as specified in MOBILE5a. Activity data for gasoline passenger cars and light-duty trucks in California were developed separately due to the different emission control technologies deployed in that state relative to the rest of the country. Unlike the rest of the United States, beginning in model year 1994, a fraction of the computed California VMT for gasoline passenger cars and light-duty trucks was attributed to low emission vehicles (LEVs). LEVs have not yet been widely deployed in other states. Based upon U.S. Department of Transportation statistics for 1994, it was assumed that 8.7 percent of national VMT occurred in California.

Activity data for non-highway vehicles were based on annual fuel consumption statistics by transportation mode and fuel type. Consumption data for distillate and residual fuel oil by ships and boats (i.e., vessel bunkering), construction equipment, farm equipment, and locomotives were obtained from EIA (1998). In the case of ships and boats, the EIA (1998) vessel bunkering data was reduced by the amount of fuel used for international bunkers.⁵ Data on the consumption of jet fuel in aircraft were obtained directly from EIA, as described under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion, and were reduced by the amount allocated to international bunker fuels using data from DOT/BTS (1998). Data on aviation gasoline consumed in aircraft were also taken directly from EIA as above. Data on the consumption of motor gasoline by ships and boats, construction equipment, farm equipment, and locomotives data were drawn from FHWA (1997). For these vehicles, 1996 fuel consumption data were used as a proxy because 1997 data were unavailable. The activity data used for non-highway vehicles are included in Table C-4.

Step 2: Allocate VMT Data to Control Technology Type for Highway Vehicles

For highway sources, VMT by vehicle type for each model year were distributed across various control technologies as shown in Table C-5, Table C-6, Table C-7, Table C-8, and Table C-9. Again, California gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks were treated separately due to that state's distinct mobile source emission standards—including the introduction of Low Emission Vehicles (LEVs) in 1994—compared with the rest of the United States. The categories “Tier 0” and “Tier 1” have been substituted for the early three-way catalyst and advanced three-way catalyst categories, respectively, as defined in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*. Tier 0, Tier 1, and LEV

⁵ See International Bunker Fuels.

are actually U.S. emission regulations, rather than control technologies; however, each does correspond to particular combinations of control technologies and engine design. Tier 1 and its predecessor Tier 0 both apply to vehicles equipped with three-way catalysts. The introduction of “early three-way catalysts,” and “advance three-way catalysts” as described in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, roughly correspond to the introduction of Tier 0 and Tier 1 regulations (EPA 1998).

Step 3: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted by Vehicle, Fuel, and Control Technology Type

Emissions of CH₄ from mobile source combustion and N₂O from non-highway vehicles were calculated by multiplying emission factors in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) by activity data for each vehicle type as described in Step 1 (see Table C-10 and Table C-11). The CH₄ emission factors for highway sources were derived from EPA’s MOBILE5a mobile source emissions model (EPA 1997). The MOBILE5a model uses information on ambient temperature, diurnal temperature range, altitude, vehicle speeds, national vehicle registration distributions, gasoline volatility, emission control technologies, fuel composition, and the presence or absence of vehicle inspection/maintenance programs in order to produce these factors.

Emissions of N₂O—in contrast to CH₄, CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs—have not been extensively studied and are currently not well characterized. The limited number of studies that have been performed on highway vehicle emissions of N₂O have shown that emissions are generally greater from vehicles with catalytic converter systems than those without such controls, and greater from aged than from new catalysts. These systems control tailpipe emissions of NO_x (i.e., NO and NO₂) by catalytically reducing NO_x to N₂. Suboptimal catalyst performance, caused by as yet poorly understood factors, results in incomplete reduction and the conversion of some NO_x to N₂O rather than to N₂. Fortunately, newer vehicles with catalyst and engine designs meeting the more recent Tier 1 and LEV standards have shown reduced emission rates of both NO_x and N₂O.

In order to better characterize the process by which N₂O is formed by catalytic controls and to develop a more accurate national emission estimate, the EPA’s Office of Mobile Sources—at its National Vehicle and Fuel Emissions Laboratory (NVFEL)—recently conducted a series of tests in order to measure emission rates of N₂O from used Tier 1 and LEV gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks equipped with catalytic converters. These tests and a review of the literature were used to develop the emission factors for nitrous oxide used in this inventory (EPA 1998b). The following references were used in developing the N₂O emission factors for gasoline-fueled highway passenger cars presented in Table C-10:

LEVs. Tests performed at NVFEL (EPA 1998b)⁶

Tier 1. Tests performed at NVFEL (EPA 1998b)

Tier 0. Smith and Carey (1982), Barton and Simpson (1994), and one car tested at NVFEL (EPA 1998b)

Oxidation Catalyst. Smith and Carey (1982), Urban and Garbe (1979)

Non-Catalyst. Prigent and de Soete (1989), Dasch (1992), and Urban and Garbe (1979)

Nitrous oxide emission factors for other types of gasoline-fueled vehicles—light-duty trucks, heavy-duty vehicles, and motorcycles—were estimated by adjusting the factors for gasoline passenger cars, as described above, by their relative fuel economies. This adjustment was performed using the carbon dioxide emission rates in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) as a proxy for fuel economy (see Table C-10). Data from the literature and tests performed at NVFEL support the conclusion that light-duty trucks have higher emission rates than passenger cars. However, the use of fuel-consumption ratios to determine emission factors is considered a temporary measure only, to be replaced as soon as real data are available.

⁶ It was assumed that LEVs would be operated using low-sulfur fuel (i.e., Indolene at 24 ppm sulfur). All other NVFEL tests were performed using a standard commercial fuel (CAAB at 285 ppm sulfur). Emission tests by NVFEL have consistently exhibited higher N₂O emission rates from higher sulfur fuels on Tier 1 and LEV vehicles.

The resulting N₂O emission factors employed for gasoline highway vehicles are lower than the U.S. default values presented in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, but are higher than the European default values, both of which were published before the more recent tests and literature review conducted by the NVFEL. The U.S. defaults in the *Guidelines* were based on three studies that tested a total of five cars using European rather than U.S. test procedures. Nitrous oxide emission factors for diesel highway vehicles were taken from the European default values found in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). There is little data addressing N₂O emissions from U.S. diesel-fueled vehicles, and in general, European countries have had more experience with diesel-fueled vehicles. U.S. default values in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* were used for non-highway vehicles.

Compared to regulated tailpipe emissions, there is relatively little data available to estimate emission factors for nitrous oxide. Nitrous oxide is not a criteria pollutant, and measurements of it in automobile exhaust have not been routinely collected. Further testing is needed to reduce the uncertainty in nitrous oxide emission factors for all classes of vehicles, using realistic driving regimes, environmental conditions, and fuels.

Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions

The emission estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs for mobile sources were taken directly from the EPA's *Draft National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends, 1900 - 1997* (EPA 1998a). This EPA report provides emission estimates for these gases by sector and fuel type using a "top down" estimating procedure whereby emissions were calculated using basic activity data, such as amount of fuel delivered or miles traveled, as indicators of emissions. Table C-12 through Table C-14 provide complete emissions estimates for 1990 through 1997.

Table C-1: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Gasoline Highway Vehicles (10⁹ Miles)

Year	Passenger Cars ^a	Light-Duty Trucks ^a	Heavy-Duty Vehicles	Motorcycles	Passenger Cars (CA) ^b	Light-Duty Trucks (CA) ^b
1990	1,492.61	462.31	43.32	9.57	129.86	40.22
1991	1,512.72	468.92	43.60	9.20	131.61	40.80
1992	1,574.56	472.90	43.39	9.55	136.99	41.14
1993	1,602.28	493.20	45.96	9.89	139.40	42.91
1994	1,562.48	581.83	49.67	10.25	135.94	50.62
1995	1,605.74	597.92	51.04	10.52	139.70	52.02
1996	1,443.59	806.21	51.66	9.87	125.59	70.14
1997	1,475.85	824.31	52.89	10.10	128.40	71.71

^a Excludes California

^b California VMT for passenger cars and light-duty trucks was treated separately and estimated as 8.7 percent of national total. Source: VMT data are the same as those used in EPA (1998a).

Table C-2: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Diesel Highway Vehicles (10⁹ Miles)

Year	Passenger Cars	Light-Duty Trucks	Heavy-Duty Vehicles
1990	20.6	3.8	112.2
1991	20.9	3.8	112.9
1992	21.7	3.9	115.0
1993	22.1	4.1	119.6
1994	21.5	4.8	127.0
1995	22.1	4.9	130.5
1996	19.9	6.7	137.1
1997	20.4	6.8	140.5

Source: VMT data are the same as those used in EPA (1998a).

Table C-3: VMT Profile by Vehicle Age (years) and Vehicle/Fuel Type for Highway Vehicles (percent of VMT)

Vehicle Age	LDGV	LDGT	HDGV	LDDV	LDDT	HDDV	MC
1	4.9%	6.3%	2.3%	4.9%	6.3%	3.4%	14.4%
2	7.9%	8.4%	4.7%	7.9%	8.4%	6.7%	16.8%
3	8.3%	8.4%	4.7%	8.3%	8.4%	6.7%	13.5%
4	8.2%	8.4%	4.7%	8.2%	8.4%	6.7%	10.9%
5	8.4%	8.4%	4.7%	8.4%	8.4%	6.7%	8.8%
6	8.1%	6.9%	3.8%	8.1%	6.9%	7.3%	7.0%
7	7.7%	5.9%	3.3%	7.7%	5.9%	6.1%	5.6%
8	5.6%	4.4%	2.1%	5.6%	4.4%	4.0%	4.5%
9	5.0%	3.6%	2.6%	5.0%	3.6%	4.1%	3.6%
10	5.1%	3.1%	2.9%	5.1%	3.1%	5.1%	2.9%
11	5.0%	3.0%	3.4%	5.0%	3.0%	5.3%	2.3%
12	5.4%	5.3%	6.4%	5.4%	5.3%	6.6%	9.7%
13	4.7%	4.7%	5.4%	4.7%	4.7%	5.5%	0.0%
14	3.7%	4.6%	5.8%	3.7%	4.6%	5.7%	0.0%
15	2.4%	3.6%	5.1%	2.4%	3.6%	4.5%	0.0%
16	1.9%	2.8%	3.8%	1.9%	2.8%	1.9%	0.0%
17	1.4%	1.7%	4.3%	1.4%	1.7%	2.3%	0.0%
18	1.5%	2.2%	4.1%	1.5%	2.2%	2.8%	0.0%
19	1.1%	1.7%	3.5%	1.1%	1.7%	2.4%	0.0%
20	0.8%	1.4%	2.9%	0.8%	1.4%	1.6%	0.0%
21	0.6%	0.9%	2.1%	0.6%	0.9%	1.1%	0.0%
22	0.5%	0.8%	2.2%	0.5%	0.8%	0.9%	0.0%
23	0.4%	0.8%	2.2%	0.4%	0.8%	0.7%	0.0%
24	0.3%	0.5%	1.4%	0.3%	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%
25	1.0%	2.5%	11.7%	1.0%	2.5%	1.6%	0.0%

LDGV (gasoline passenger cars, also referred to as light-duty gas vehicles)

LDGT (light-duty gas trucks)

HDGV (heavy-duty gas vehicles)

LDDV (diesel passenger cars, also referred to as light-duty diesel vehicles)

LDDT (light-duty diesel trucks)

HDDV (heavy-duty diesel vehicles)

MC (motorcycles)

Table C-4: Fuel Consumption for Non-Highway Vehicles by Fuel Type (U.S. gallons)

Vehicle Type/Year	Residual	Diesel	Jet Fuel	Other
Aircraft^a				
1990	-	-	19,138,571,644	374,401,818
1991	-	-	18,362,671,260	346,945,685
1992	-	-	17,978,360,318	341,953,660
1993	-	-	18,099,464,134	319,448,684
1994	-	-	18,885,264,653	317,309,701
1995	-	-	18,397,377,217	329,315,519
1996	-	-	19,296,093,738	310,795,109
1997	-	-	19,123,384,372	330,280,644
Ships and Boats^b				
1990	1,666,165,227	1,943,259,570	-	1,300,400,000
1991	1,486,167,178	1,806,653,451	-	1,709,700,000
1992	2,347,064,583	1,820,275,621	-	1,316,170,000
1993	2,758,924,466	1,661,285,902	-	873,687,000
1994	2,499,868,472	1,746,597,258	-	896,700,000
1995	2,994,692,916	1,636,189,216	-	1,060,394,000
1996	2,280,373,162	1,952,357,254	-	993,671,000
1997	1,005,997,126	1,917,777,070	-	993,671,000

Vehicle Type/Year	Residual	Diesel	Jet Fuel	Other
Construction Equipment^c				
1990	-	2,508,300,000	-	1,523,600,000
1991	-	2,447,400,000	-	1,384,900,000
1992	-	2,287,642,000	-	1,492,200,000
1993	-	2,323,183,000	-	1,270,386,667
1994	-	2,437,142,000	-	1,312,161,667
1995	-	2,273,162,000	-	1,351,642,667
1996	-	2,386,973,000	-	1,365,550,667
1997	-	2,385,236,000	-	1,365,550,667
Farm Equipment^d				
1990	-	3,164,200,000	-	812,800,000
1991	-	3,144,200,000	-	776,200,000
1992	-	3,274,811,000	-	805,500,000
1993	-	3,077,122,000	-	845,320,000
1994	-	3,062,436,000	-	911,996,000
1995	-	3,093,224,000	-	926,732,000
1996	-	3,225,029,000	-	918,085,000
1997	-	3,206,359,000	-	918,085,000
Locomotives				
1990	25,422	3,210,111,000	-	-
1991	6,845	3,026,292,000	-	-
1992	8,343	3,217,231,000	-	-
1993	4,065	2,906,998,000	-	-
1994	5,956	3,063,441,000	-	-
1995	6,498	3,191,023,000	-	-
1996	9,309	3,266,861,000	-	-
1997	3,431	3,067,400,000	-	-

- Not applicable

^a Other fuel aviation gasoline.

^b Other fuel motor gasoline.

^c Construction Equipment includes snowmobiles. Other fuel is motor gasoline.

^d Other fuel is motor gasoline.

Table C-5: Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Passenger Cars (percentage of VMT)*

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	Tier 0	Tier 1
1973-1974	100%			
1975	20%	80%		
1976-1977	15%	85%		
1978-1979	10%	90%		
1980	5%	88%	7%	
1981		15%	85%	
1982		14%	86%	
1983		12%	88%	
1984-1993			100%	
1994			60%	40%
1995			20%	80%
1996				100%
1997				100%

* Excluding California VMT

Table C-6: Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Light-Duty Trucks (percentage of VMT)*

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	Tier 0	Tier 1
1973-1974	100%			
1975	30%	70%		
1976	20%	80%		
1977-1978	25%	75%		
1979-1980	20%	80%		
1981		95%	5%	
1982		90%	10%	
1983		80%	20%	
1984		70%	30%	
1985		60%	40%	
1986		50%	50%	
1987-1993		5%	95%	
1994			60%	40%
1995			20%	80%
1996				100%
1997				100%

* Excluding California VMT

Table C-7: Control Technology Assignments for California Gasoline Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks (percentage of VMT)

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	Tier 0	Tier 1	LEV
1973-1974	100%				
1975-1979		100%			
1980-1981		15%	85%		
1982		14%	86%		
1983		12%	88%		
1984-1991			100%		
1992			60%	40%	
1993			20%	80%	
1994				90%	10%
1995				85%	15%
1996				80%	20%
1997				75%	25%

Table C-8: Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Heavy-Duty Vehicles (percentage of VMT)

Model Years	Uncontrolled	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	Tier 0
#1981	100%			
1982-1984	95%		5%	
1985-1986		95%	5%	
1987		70%	15%	15%
1988-1989		60%	25%	15%
1990-1997		45%	30%	25%

Table C-9: Control Technology Assignments for Diesel Highway VMT

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	Model Years
Diesel Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks	
Uncontrolled	1966-1982
Moderate control	1983-1995
Advanced control	1996-1997
Heavy-Duty Diesel Vehicles	
Uncontrolled	1966-1972
Moderate control	1983-1995
Advanced control	1996-1997
Motorcycles	
Uncontrolled	1966-1995
Non-catalyst controls	1996-1997

Table C-10: Emission Factors (g/km) for CH₄ and N₂O and “Fuel Economy” (g CO₂/km)^c for Highway Mobile Sources

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	N ₂ O	CH ₄	g CO ₂ /km
Gasoline Passenger Cars			
Low Emission Vehicles ^a	0.0176	0.025	280
Tier 1	0.0288	0.030	285
Tier 0	0.0507	0.040	298
Oxidation Catalyst	0.0322	0.070	383
Non-Catalyst	0.0103	0.120	531
Uncontrolled	0.0103	0.135	506
Gasoline Light-Duty Trucks			
Low Emission Vehicles ^a	0.0249	0.030	396
Tier 1	0.0400	0.035	396
Tier 0	0.0846	0.070	498
Oxidation Catalyst	0.0418	0.090	498
Non-Catalyst	0.0117	0.140	601
Uncontrolled	0.0118	0.135	579
Gasoline Heavy-Duty Vehicles			
Tier 0	0.1729	0.075	1,017
Oxidation Catalyst ^b	0.0870	0.090	1,036
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0256	0.125	1,320
Uncontrolled	0.0269	0.270	1,320
Diesel Passenger Cars			
Advanced	0.0100	0.01	237
Moderate	0.0100	0.01	248
Uncontrolled	0.0100	0.01	319
Diesel Light Trucks			
Advanced	0.0200	0.01	330
Moderate	0.0200	0.01	331
Uncontrolled	0.0200	0.01	415
Diesel Heavy-Duty Vehicles			
Advanced	0.0300	0.04	987
Moderate	0.0300	0.05	1,011
Uncontrolled	0.0300	0.06	1,097
Motorcycles			
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0042	0.13	219
Uncontrolled	0.0054	0.26	266

^a Applied to California VMT only.

^b Methane emission factor assumed based on light-duty trucks oxidation catalyst value.

^c The carbon emission factor (g CO₂/km) was used as a proxy for fuel economy because of the greater number of significant figures compared to the km/L values presented in (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

NA (Not Available)

Table C-11: Emission Factors for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Non-Highway Mobile Sources (g/kg fuel)

Vehicle Type/Fuel Type	N ₂ O	CH ₄
Ships and Boats		
Residual	0.08	0.23
Distillate	0.08	0.23
Gasoline	0.08	0.23
Locomotives		
Residual	0.08	0.25
Diesel	0.08	0.25
Coal	0.08	0.25
Farm Equipment		
Gas/Tractor	0.08	0.45
Other Gas	0.08	0.45
Diesel/Tractor	0.08	0.45
Other Diesel	0.08	0.45
Construction		
Gas Construction	0.08	0.18
Diesel Construction	0.08	0.18
Other Non-Highway		
Gas Snowmobile	0.08	0.18
Gas Small Utility	0.08	0.18
Gas HD Utility	0.08	0.18
Diesel HD Utility	0.08	0.18
Aircraft		
Jet Fuel	0.1	0.087
Aviation Gasoline	0.04	2.64

Table C-12: NO_x Emissions from Mobile Sources, 1990-1997 (Gg)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	4,356	4,654	4,788	4,913	5,063	4,804	4,770	4,629
Passenger Cars	2,910	3,133	3,268	3,327	3,230	3,112	2,691	2,597
Light-Duty Trucks	1,140	1,215	1,230	1,289	1,503	1,378	1,769	1,725
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	296	296	280	286	318	301	298	296
Motorcycles	11	10	11	11	11	12	11	11
Diesel Highway	2,031	2,035	1,962	1,900	1,897	1,839	1,803	1,753
Passenger Cars	35	34	35	36	35	35	31	31
Light-Duty Trucks	6	7	7	7	9	9	11	11
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	1,989	1,995	1,920	1,857	1,854	1,795	1,760	1,711
Non-Highway	3,844	3,869	3,910	3,936	3,989	4,089	4,063	4,137
Ships and Boats	253	265	259	250	254	264	265	273
Locomotives	843	842	858	857	859	898	836	861
Farm Equipment	894	905	918	931	943	955	965	962
Construction Equipment	1,015	1,026	1,039	1,054	1,071	1,094	1,110	1,120
Aircraft ^a	143	141	142	142	146	150	151	161
Other ^b	697	690	695	703	716	729	736	759
Total	10,231	10,558	10,659	10,749	10,949	10,732	10,636	10,519

^a Aircraft estimates include only emissions related to LTO cycles, and therefore do not include cruise altitude emissions.

^b "Other" includes gasoline powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light commercial, logging, airport service, other equipment; and diesel powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light construction, airport service.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table C-13: CO Emissions from Mobile Sources, 1990-1997 (Gg)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	51,332	55,104	53,077	53,375	54,778	47,767	46,965	44,225
Passenger Cars	33,746	36,369	35,554	35,357	33,850	30,391	25,894	24,356
Light-Duty Trucks	12,534	13,621	13,215	13,786	15,739	13,453	17,483	16,659
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	4,863	4,953	4,145	4,061	5,013	3,741	3,416	3,039
Motorcycles	190	161	163	172	177	182	171	171
Diesel Highway	1,147	1,210	1,227	1,240	1,316	1,318	1,354	1,368
Passenger Cars	28	27	28	30	29	30	27	27
Light-Duty Trucks	5	5	6	6	7	7	10	10
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	1,115	1,177	1,193	1,205	1,280	1,281	1,318	1,332
Non-Highway	13,949	13,942	14,199	14,359	14,560	14,761	14,886	15,201
Ships and Boats	1,619	1,644	1,659	1,672	1,684	1,678	1,689	1,704
Locomotives	110	109	113	108	104	103	102	105
Farm Equipment	355	317	344	354	324	298	302	298
Construction Equipment	936	932	957	991	1,042	1,072	1,079	1,080
Aircraft ^a	820	806	818	821	830	855	861	918
Other ^b	10,110	10,134	10,308	10,413	10,577	10,755	10,854	11,096
Total	66,429	70,256	68,503	68,974	70,655	63,846	63,205	60,794

^a Aircraft estimates include only emissions related to LTO cycles, and therefore do not include cruise altitude emissions.

^b "Other" includes gasoline powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light commercial, logging, airport service, other equipment; and diesel powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light construction, airport service.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table C-14: NMVOCs Emissions from Mobile Sources, 1990-1997 (Gg)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Gasoline Highway	5,444	5,607	5,220	5,248	5,507	4,883	4,743	4,528
Passenger Cars	3,524	3,658	3,447	3,427	3,367	3,071	2,576	2,467
Light-Duty Trucks	1,471	1,531	1,440	1,494	1,731	1,478	1,869	1,785
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	392	384	303	296	375	297	266	243
Motorcycles	56	33	30	31	33	37	33	33
Diesel Highway	283	290	288	288	300	290	238	217
Passenger Cars	11	11	12	12	12	12	11	11
Light-Duty Trucks	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	5
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	269	276	274	273	284	274	223	201
Non-Highway	2,225	2,237	2,266	2,282	2,303	2,182	2,175	2,205
Ships and Boats	563	571	576	580	584	439	464	468
Locomotives	48	47	49	47	45	45	44	45
Farm Equipment	135	131	131	130	126	123	121	116
Construction Equipment	197	198	202	207	213	219	219	219
Aircraft ^a	163	161	162	160	159	161	161	170
Other ^b	1,120	1,129	1,146	1,160	1,175	1,196	1,167	1,186
Total	7,952	8,133	7,774	7,819	8,110	7,354	7,156	6,949

^a Aircraft estimates include only emissions related to LTO cycles, and therefore do not include cruise altitude emissions.

^b "Other" includes gasoline powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light commercial, logging, airport service, other equipment; and diesel powered recreational, industrial, lawn and garden, light construction, airport service.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Annex D

Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Coal Mining

The methodology for estimating methane emissions from coal mining consists of two distinct steps. The first step addresses emissions from underground mines. For these mines, emissions were estimated on a mine-by-mine basis and then were summed to determine total emissions. The second step of the analysis involved estimating methane emissions for surface mines and post-mining activities. In contrast to the methodology for underground mines, which used mine-specific data, the methodology for estimating emissions from surface mines and post-mining activities consists of multiplying basin-specific coal production by basin-specific emissions factors.

Step 1: Estimate Methane Liberated and Methane Emitted from Underground Mines

Underground mines liberate methane from ventilation systems and from degasification systems. Some mines recover and use methane liberated from degasification systems, thereby reducing methane emissions to the atmosphere. Total methane emitted from underground mines equals methane liberated from ventilation systems, plus methane liberated from degasification systems, minus methane recovered and used.

Step 1.1 Estimate Methane Liberated from Ventilation Systems

All coal mines with detectable methane emissions⁷ use ventilation systems to ensure that methane levels remain within safe concentrations. Many coal mines do not have detectable methane emissions, while others emit several million cubic feet per day (MMCFD) from their ventilation systems. On a quarterly basis, the U.S. Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA) measures methane emissions levels at underground mines. MSHA maintains a database of measurement data from all underground mines with detectable levels of methane in their ventilation air. Based on the four quarterly measurements, MSHA estimates average daily methane liberated at each of the underground mines with detectable emissions.

For the years 1990 through 1996, EPA obtained MSHA emissions data for a large but incomplete subset of all mines with detectable emissions. This subset includes mines emitting at least 0.1 MMCFD for some years and at least 0.5 MMCFD for other years, as shown in Table D-1. Well over 90 percent of all ventilation emissions are concentrated in these subsets. For 1997, EPA obtained the complete MSHA database for all 586 mines with detectable methane emissions. These mines were assumed to account for 100 percent of methane liberated from underground mines.

Using this complete 1997 database, the portion of total emissions accounted for by mines emitting more and less than 0.1 MMCFD or 0.5 MMCFD was estimated (see Table D-1). These proportions were then applied to the years 1990 through 1996 to account for the less than 10 percent of ventilation emissions not accounted for by mines without MSHA data.

Average daily methane emissions were multiplied by 365 days per year to determine annual emissions for each mine. Total ventilation emissions for a particular year was estimated by summing emissions from individual mines.

⁷ MSHA records coal mine methane readings with concentrations of greater than 50 ppm (parts per million) methane. Readings below this threshold are considered non-detectable.

Table D-1: Mine-Specific Data Used to Estimate Ventilation Emissions

Year	Individual Mine Data Used
1990	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1991	1990 Emissions Factors Used Instead of Mine-Specific Data
1992	1990 Emissions Factors Used Instead of Mine-Specific Data
1993	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1994	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1995	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.5 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 94.1% of Total)*
1996	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.5 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 94.1% of Total)*
1997	All Mines with Detectable Emissions (Assumed to Account for 100% of Total)

* Factor derived from a complete set of individual mine data collected for 1997.

Step 1.2 Estimate Methane Liberated from Degasification Systems

In 1997, twenty-four coal mines use degasification systems in addition to their ventilation systems for methane control. Coal mines use several different types of degasification systems to remove methane, including vertical wells and horizontal boreholes to recover methane prior to mining of the coal seam. Gob wells and cross-measure boreholes recover methane from the overburden (i.e., GOB area) after mining of the seam (primarily in longwall mines).

MSHA collects information about the presence and type of degasification systems in some mines, but does not collect quantitative data on the amount of methane liberated. Thus, the methodology estimated degasification emissions on a mine-by-mine basis based on other sources of available data. Many of the coal mines employing degasification systems have provided EPA with information regarding methane liberated from their degasification systems. For these mines, this reported information was used as the estimate. In other cases in which mines sell methane recovered from degasification systems to a pipeline, gas sales were used to estimate methane liberated from degasification systems (see Step 1.3). Finally, for those mines that do not sell methane to a pipeline and have not provided information to EPA, methane liberated from degasification systems was estimated based on the type of system employed. For example, for coal mines employing gob wells and horizontal boreholes, the methodology assumes that degasification emissions account for 40 percent of total methane liberated from the mine.

Step 1.3: Estimate Methane Recovered from Degasification Systems and Used (Emissions Avoided)

In 1997, fourteen active coal mines had developed methane recovery and use projects and sold the recovered methane to a pipeline. One coal mine also used some recovered methane in a thermal dryer in addition to selling gas to a pipeline. Where available, state agency gas sales data were used to estimate emissions avoided for these projects. Emissions avoided were attributed to the year in which the coal seam was mined. For example, if a coal mine recovered and sold methane using a vertical well drilled five years in advance of mining, the emissions avoided associated with those gas sales were attributed to the year during which the well was mined-through (five years after the gas was sold). In order to estimate emissions avoided for those coal mines using degasification methods that recover methane in advance of mining, information was needed regarding the amount of gas recovered and the number of years in advance of mining that wells were drilled. In most cases, coal mine operators provided EPA with this information, which was then used to estimate emissions avoided for a particular year. Additionally, several state agencies made production data available for individual wells. For some mines, these individual well data were used to assign gas sales from individual wells to the appropriate emissions avoided year.

Step 2: Estimate Methane Emitted from Surface Mines and Post-Mining Activities

Mine-specific data were not available for estimating methane emissions from surface coal mines or for post-mining activities. For surface mines and post-mining activities, basin-specific coal production was multiplied by a basin-specific emission factor to determine methane emissions.

Step 2.1: Define the Geographic Resolution of the Analysis and Collect Coal Production Data

The first step in estimating methane emissions from surface mining and post-mining activities was to define the geographic resolution of the analysis and to collect coal production data at that level of resolution. The U.S. analysis was conducted by coal basin as defined in Table D-2. Table D-2 presents coal basin definitions by basin and by state.

The Energy Information Agency (EIA) Coal Industry Annual reports state- and county-specific underground and surface coal production by year. To calculate production by basin, the state level data were grouped into coal basins using the basin definitions listed in Table D-2. For two states—West Virginia and Kentucky—county-level production data was used for the basin assignments because coal production occurred from geologically distinct coal basins within these states. Table D-3 presents the coal production data aggregated by basin.

Step 2.2: Estimate Emissions Factors for Each Emissions Type

Emission factors for surface mined coal were developed from the *in situ* methane content of the surface coal in each basin. Based on an analysis presented in EPA (1993), surface mining emission factors were estimated to be from 1 to 3 times the average *in situ* methane content in the basin. For this analysis, the surface mining emission factor was determined to be twice the *in situ* methane content in the basin. Furthermore, the post-mining emission factors used were estimated to be 25 to 40 percent of the average *in situ* methane content in the basin. For this analysis, the post-mining emission factor was determined to be 32.5 percent of the *in situ* methane content in the basin. Table D-4 presents the average *in situ* content for each basin, along with the resulting emission factor estimates.

Step 2.3: Estimate Methane Emitted

The total amount of methane emitted was calculated by multiplying the coal production in each basin by the appropriate emission factors.

Total annual methane emissions is equal to the sum of underground mine emissions plus surface mine emissions plus post-mining emissions. Table D-5 and Table D-6 present estimates of methane liberated, methane used, and methane emissions for 1990 through 1997. Table D-7 provides methane emissions by state.

Table D-2: Coal Basin Definitions by Basin and by State

Basin	States
Northern Appalachian Basin	Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, West VA North
Central Appalachian Basin	Kentucky East, Tennessee, Virginia, West VA South
Warrior Basin	Alabama
Illinois Basin	Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky West
South West and Rockies Basin	Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah
North Great Plains Basin	Montana, North Dakota, Wyoming
West Interior Basin	Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, Texas
Northwest Basin	Alaska, Washington
State	Basin
Alabama	Warrior Basin
Alaska	Northwest Basin
Arizona	South West And Rockies Basin
Arkansas	West Interior Basin
California	South West And Rockies Basin
Colorado	South West And Rockies Basin
Illinois	Illinois Basin
Indiana	Illinois Basin
Iowa	West Interior Basin
Kansas	West Interior Basin
Kentucky East	Central Appalachian Basin
Kentucky West	Illinois Basin
Louisiana	West Interior Basin
Maryland	Northern Appalachian Basin
Missouri	West Interior Basin
Montana	North Great Plains Basin
New Mexico	South West And Rockies Basin
North Dakota	North Great Plains Basin
Ohio	Northern Appalachian Basin
Oklahoma	West Interior Basin
Pennsylvania.	Northern Appalachian Basin
Tennessee	Central Appalachian Basin
Texas	West Interior Basin
Utah	South West And Rockies Basin
Virginia	Central Appalachian Basin
Washington	Northwest Basin
West Virginia South	Central Appalachian Basin
West Virginia North	Northern Appalachian Basin
Wyoming	North Great Plains Basin

Table D-3: Annual Coal Production (thousand short tons)*Underground Coal Production*

Basin	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Northern Appalachia	103,865	103,450	105,220	77,032	100,122	98,103	106,729	112,135
Central Appalachia	198,412	181,873	177,777	164,845	170,893	166,495	171,845	177,720
Warrior	17,531	17,062	15,944	15,557	14,471	17,605	18,217	18,505
Illinois	69,167	69,947	73,154	55,967	69,050	69,009	67,046	64,728
S. West/Rockies	32,754	31,568	31,670	35,409	41,681	42,994	43,088	44,503
N. Great Plains	1,722	2,418	2,511	2,146	2,738	2,018	2,788	2,854
West Interior	105	26	59	100	147	25	137	212
Northwest	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	423,556	406,344	406,335	351,056	399,102	396,249	409,850	420,657

Surface Coal Production

Basin	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Northern Appalachia	60,761	51,124	50,512	48,641	44,960	39,372	39,788	40,179
Central Appalachia	94,343	91,785	95,163	94,433	106,129	106,250	108,869	113,275
Warrior	11,413	10,104	9,775	9,211	8,795	7,036	6,420	5,963
Illinois	72,000	63,483	58,814	50,535	51,868	40,376	44,754	46,862
S. West/Rockies	43,863	42,985	46,052	48,765	49,119	46,643	43,814	48,374
N. Great Plains	249,356	259,194	258,281	275,873	308,279	331,367	343,404	349,612
West Interior	64,310	61,889	63,562	60,574	58,791	59,116	60,912	59,061
Northwest	6,707	6,579	6,785	6,340	6,460	6,566	6,046	5,945
Total	602,753	587,143	588,944	594,372	634,401	636,726	654,007	669,271

Total Coal Production

Basin	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Northern Appalachia	164,626	154,574	155,732	125,673	145,082	137,475	146,517	152,314
Central Appalachia	292,755	273,658	272,940	259,278	277,022	272,745	280,714	290,995
Warrior	28,944	27,166	25,719	24,768	23,266	24,641	24,637	24,468
Illinois	141,167	133,430	131,968	106,502	120,918	109,385	111,800	111,590
S. West/Rockies	76,617	74,553	77,722	84,174	90,800	89,637	86,902	92,877
N. Great Plains	251,078	261,612	260,792	278,019	311,017	333,385	346,192	352,466
West Interior	64,415	61,915	63,621	60,674	58,938	59,141	61,049	59,273
Northwest	6,707	6,579	6,785	6,340	6,460	6,566	6,046	5,945
Total	1,026,309	993,487	995,279	945,428	1,033,503	1,032,975	1,063,857	1,0829,92

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Source: EIA (1990-97), Coal Industry Annual. U.S. Department of Energy, Washington, D.C., Table 3.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table D-4: Coal Surface and Post-Mining Methane Emission Factors (ft³ per short ton)

Basin	Surface	Underground	Surface	Post-Mining	Post Mining
	Average	Average	Mine	Surface	Underground
	<i>in situ</i> Content	<i>in situ</i> Content	Factors	Factors	
Northern Appalachia	49.3	171.7	98.6	16.0	16.0
Central Appalachia	49.3	330.7	98.6	16.0	16.0
Warrior	49.3	318.0	98.6	16.0	16.0
Illinois	39.0	57.20	78.0	12.7	12.7
S. West/Rockies	15.3	225.8	30.6	5.0	5.0
N. Great Plains	3.2	41.67	6.4	1.0	1.0
West Interior	3.2	41.67	6.4	1.0	1.0
Northwest	3.2	41.67	6.4	1.0	1.0

Source: EPA (1993), Anthropogenic Methane Emissions in the United States: Estimates for 1990, Report to Congress, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Air and Radiation, April.

Table D-5: Underground Coal Mining Methane Emissions (billion cubic feet)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Ventilation Output	112	NA	NA	95	96	102	90	96
Adjustment Factor for Mine Data ^a	97.8%	NA	NA	97.8%	97.8%	91.4%	91.4%	100.0%
Ventilation Liberated	114	NA	NA	97	98	111	99	96
Degasification System Liberated	57	NA	NA	49	50	50	51	57
Total Underground Liberated	171	164	162	146	149	161	150	153
Recovered & Used	(15)	(15)	(19)	(24)	(29)	(31)	(35)	(42)
Total	156	149	142	121	119	130	115	112

^a Refer to Table D-1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table D-6: Total Coal Mining Methane Emissions (billion cubic feet)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Underground Mining	156	149	142	121	119	130	115	112
Surface Mining	25	23	23	23	24	22	23	24
Post-Mining (Underground)	33	31	30	27	30	30	31	31
Post-Mining (Surface)	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Total	218	207	200	175	177	185	172	171

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table D-7: Total Coal Mining Methane Emissions by State (million cubic feet)

State	1990	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Alabama	33,650	27,000	30,713	39,945	30,808	26,722
Alaska	13	12	12	13	11	11
Arizona	402	433	464	425	371	417
Arkansas	0	0	0	0	0	0
California	2	0	0	0	0	0
Colorado	10,117	7,038	9,029	8,541	5,795	9,057
Illinois	10,643	8,737	10,624	11,106	10,890	8,571
Indiana	3,149	2,623	2,791	2,106	2,480	3,088
Iowa	3	1	0	0	0	0
Kansas	5	3	2	2	2	3
Kentucky	21,229	19,823	21,037	19,103	18,292	20,089
Louisiana	24	23	26	28	24	26
Maryland	510	245	256	259	287	296
Missouri	20	5	6	4	5	3
Montana	280	267	310	294	283	305
New Mexico	905	1,186	1,223	980	856	961
North Dakota	217	238	240	224	222	220
Ohio	4,710	4,110	4,377	3,900	3,992	4,313
Oklahoma	13	14	52	14	14	132
Pennsylvania	22,573	26,437	24,026	27,086	26,567	30,339
Tennessee	800	350	338	366	418	390
Texas	415	406	389	392	410	397
Utah	4,562	4,512	3,696	3,541	4,061	4,807
Virginia	45,883	30,454	26,782	19,898	19,857	16,990
Washington	37	35	36	36	34	33
West Virginia	56,636	39,477	38,565	44,894	44,380	41,454
Wyoming	1,382	1,578	1,782	1,977	2,090	2,122
Total	218,180	175,007	176,781	185,134	172,149	170,746

Note: The emission estimates provided above are inclusive of emissions from underground mines, surface mines and post-mining activities. The following states have neither underground nor surface mining and thus report no emissions as a result of coal mining: Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wisconsin. Emission estimates are not given for 1991 and 1992 because underground mine data was not available for those years.

Annex E

Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Natural Gas Systems

The following steps were used to estimate methane emissions from natural gas systems.

Step 1: Calculate Emission Estimates for Base Year 1992 Using GRI/EPA Study

The first step in estimating methane emissions from natural gas systems was to develop a detailed base year estimate of emissions. The study by GRI/EPA (1996) divides the industry into four stages to construct a detailed emissions inventory for the year 1992. These stages include: field production, processing, transmission and storage (both underground and liquefied gas storage), and distribution. This study produced emission factors and activity data for over 100 different emission sources within the natural gas system. Emissions for 1992 were estimated by multiplying activity levels by emission factors for each system component and then summing by stage. Since publication, EPA has updated activity data for some of the components in the system. Table E-1 displays the 1992 GRI/EPA activity levels and emission factors for venting and flaring from the field production stage, and the current EPA activity levels and emission factors. The data in Table E-1 is a representative sample of data used to calculate emissions from all stages.

Step 2: Collect Aggregate Statistics on Main Driver Variables

As detailed data on each of the over 100 sources were not available for the period 1990 through 1997, activity levels were estimated using aggregate statistics on key drivers, including: number of producing wells (IPAA 1997), number of gas plants (AGA 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997), miles of transmission pipeline (AGA, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997), miles of distribution pipeline (AGA 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997), miles of distribution services (AGA 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997), and energy consumption (EIA 1997a). Data on the distribution of gas mains by material type was not available for certain years from AGA. For those years, the average distribution by type was held constant. Table E-2 provides the activity levels of some of the key drivers in the natural gas analysis.

Step 3: Estimate Emission Factor Changes Over Time

For the period 1990 through 1995, the emission factors were held constant, based on 1992 values. An assumed improvement in technology and practices was estimated to reduce emission factors by 5 percent by the year 2020. This assumption, annualized, amounts to a 0.2 and 0.4 percent decline in the 1996 and 1997 emission factors, respectively.

Step 4: Estimate Emissions for Each Source

Emissions were estimated by multiplying the activity levels by emission factors. Table E-3 provides emission estimates for venting and flaring emissions from the field production stage.

Table E-1: 1992 Data and Emissions (Mg) for Venting and Flaring from Natural Gas Field Production Stage

Activity	GRI/EPA Values			EPA Adjusted Values		
	Activity Data	Emission Factor	Emissions	Activity Data	Emission Factor	Emissions
Drilling and Well Completion						
Completion Flaring	844 compl/yr	733 scf/comp	11.9	400 compl/yr	733 scf/comp	5.63
Normal Operations						
Pneumatic Device Vents	249,111 controllers	345 scfd/device	602,291	249,111 controllers	345 scfd/device	602,291
Chemical Injection Pumps	16,971 active pumps	248 scfd/pump	29,501	16,971 active pumps	248 scfd/pump	29,502
Kimray Pumps	11,050,000 MMscf/yr	368 scf/MMscf	78,024	7,380,194 MMscf/yr	992 scf/MMscf	140,566
Dehydrator Vents	12,400,000 MMscf/yr	276 scf/MMscf	65,608	8,200,215 MMscf/yr	276 scf/MMscf	43,387
Compressor Exhaust Vented						
Gas Engines	27,460 MMHPHr	0.24 scf/HPHr	126,536	27,460 MMHPHr	0.24 scf/HPHr	126,535
Routine Maintenance						
Well Workovers						
Gas Wells	9,392 w.o./yr	2,454 scfy/w.o.	443	9,392 w.o./yr	2,454 scfy/w.o.	443
Well Clean Ups (LP Gas Wells)	114,139 LP gas wells	49,570 scfy/LP well	108,631	114,139 LP gas wells	49,570 scfy/LP well	108,631
Blowdowns						
Vessel BD	255,996 vessels	78 scfy/vessel	383	242,306 vessels	78 scfy/vessel	363
Pipeline BD	340,000 miles (gath)	309 scfy/mile	2,017	340,200 miles (gath)	309 scfy/mile	2,018
Compressor BD	17,112 compressors	3,774 scfy/comps	1,240	17,112 compressors	3,774 scfy/comps	1,240
Compressor Starts	17,112 compressors	8,443 scfy/comps	2,774	17,112 compressors	8,443 scfy/comps	2,774
Upsets						
Pressure Relief Valves	529,440 PRV	34.0 scfy/PRV	346	529,440 PRV	34.0 scfy/PRV	346
ESD	1,115 platforms	256,88 scfy/plat	5,499	1,372 platforms	256,88 scfy/plat	6,767
Mishaps	340,000 miles	669 scfy/mile	4,367	340,200 miles	669 scfy/mile	4,370

Table E-2: Activity Factors for Key Drivers

Variable	Unit	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Transmission Pipelines Length	miles	280,100	281,600	284,500	269,600	268,300	264,900	257,000	257,000
Wells									
GSAM Appalachia Wells ^a	# wells	120,162	121,586	123,685	124,708	122,021	123,092	122,700	122,700
GSAM N Central Associated Wells ^a	# wells	3,862	3,890	3,852	3,771	3,708	3,694	3,459	3,459
GSAM N Central Non-Associated Wells ^a	# wells	3,105	3,684	4,317	4,885	5,813	6,323	7,073	7,073
GSAM Rest of US Wells ^a	# wells	145,100	147,271	152,897	156,568	160,011	164,750	173,928	173,928
GSAM Rest of US Associated Wells ^a	# wells	256,918	262,441	253,587	249,265	248,582	245,338	246,598	246,598
Appalch. + N. Central Non-Assoc. + Rest of US	# wells	268,367	272,541	280,899	286,161	287,845	294,165	303,701	303,701
Platforms									
Gulf of Mexico Off-shore Platforms	# platforms	3,798	3,834	3,800	3,731	3,806	3,868	3,846	3,846
Rest of U.S. (offshore platforms)	# platforms	24	24	24	24	23	23	24	23
N. Central Non-Assoc. + Rest of US	# platforms	148,205	150,955	157,214	161,453	165,824	171,073	181,001	181,001
Wells									
<i>Gas Plants</i>									
Number of Gas Plants	# gas plants	761	734	732	726	725	675	623	615
Distribution Services									
Steel - Unprotected	# of services	5,500,993	5,473,625	5,446,393	5,419,161	5,392,065	5,365,105	5,388,279	5,388,279
Steel - Protected	# of services	19,916,20	20,352,98	20,352,98	20,512,36	20,968,44	21,106,56	21,302,42	21,302,42
Plastic	# of services	2	3	3	6	7	2	9	9
Copper	# of services	16,269,41	17,654,00	17,681,23	18,231,90	19,772,04	20,270,20	20,970,92	20,970,92
	# of services	4	6	8	3	1	3	4	4
Total	# of services	228,240	233,246	233,246	235,073	240,299	241,882	244,127	244,127
	# of services	41,914,84	43,713,86	43,713,86	44,398,50	46,372,85	46,983,75	47,905,75	47,905,75
	# of services	9	0	0	3	2	2	9	9
Distribution Mains									
Steel - Unprotected	miles	91,267	90,813	90,361	89,909	89,460	89,012	88,567	88,567
Steel - Protected	miles	491,120	492,887	496,839	501,480	497,051	499,488	468,833	468,833
Cast Iron	miles	52,644	52,100	51,800	50,086	48,542	48,100	47,100	47,100
Plastic	miles	202,269	221,600	244,300	266,826	284,247	294,400	329,700	329,700
Total	miles	837,300	857,400	883,300	908,300	919,300	931,000	934,200	934,200

^a GSAM is the Gas Systems Analysis Model (GSAM 1997) of the Federal Energy Technology Center of the U.S. Department of Energy. It is a supply, demand and transportation model.

Table E-3: CH₄ Emission Estimates for Venting and Flaring from the Field Production Stage (Mg)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Drilling and Well Completion								
Completion Flaring	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.1
Normal Operations								
Pneumatic Device Vents	567,778	578,313	602,291	618,531	635,276	655,386	691,999	691,999
Chemical Injection Pumps	36,449	37,323	39,053	40,277	41,668	43,111	45,664	45,664
Kimray Pumps	134,247	136,380	140,566	143,211	144,040	147,191	151,565	151,565
Dehydrator Vents	41,436	42,095	43,387	44,203	44,459	45,432	46,782	46,782
Compressor Exhaust								
Vented								
Gas Engines	119,284	121,498	126,535	129,947	133,465	137,690	145,382	145,382
Routine Maintenance								
Well Workovers								
Gas Wells	531	540	556	567	570	582	600	600
Well Clean Ups (LP Gas Wells)	101,118	102,725	105,878	107,870	108,494	110,868	114,162	114,162
Blowdowns								
Vessel BD	256	261	271	278	284	292	306	306
Pipeline BD	1,710	1,729	1,772	1,772	1,818	1,852	1,908	1,908
Compressor BD	1,548	1,573	1,627	1,662	1,687	1,730	1,802	1,802
Compressor Starts	3,462	3,518	3,640	3,718	3,773	3,871	4,031	4,031
Upsets								
Pressure Relief Valves	326	332	346	355	365	376	397	397
ESD	6,764	6,827	6,767	6,646	6,773	6,882	6,834	6,829
Mishaps	925	936	959	974	984	1,003	1,033	1,033

Annex F

Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Petroleum Systems

The methodology for estimating methane emissions from petroleum systems is being updated. EPA anticipates that current methodology understates emissions, and that the new methodology will be incorporated into future inventories. The following steps, however, were used to estimate methane emissions from petroleum systems for this report.

Step 1: Production Field Operations

The American Petroleum Institute (API) publishes active oil well data in reports such as the *API Basic Petroleum Data Book*. To estimate activity data, the percentage of oil wells that were not associated with natural gas production (an average of 56.4 percent from 1990 through 1997) was multiplied by the total number of wells in the United States. This number was then multiplied by per well emission factors for fugitive emissions and routine maintenance from Tilkicioglu & Winters (1989). Table F-1 displays the activity data, emission factors, and emissions estimates used.

Step 2: Crude Oil Storage

Methane emissions from storage were calculated as a function of annual U.S. crude stocks less strategic petroleum stocks for each year, obtained from annual editions of the *Petroleum Supply Annual published by the Energy Information Administration* (EIA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998). These stocks were multiplied by emission factors from Tilkicioglu & Winters (1989) to estimate emissions. Table F-2 displays the activity data, emission factors, and emissions estimates used.

Step 3: Refining

Methane emissions from refinery operations were based on U.S. refinery working storage capacity. The EIA reports this data every two years. The data was last reported in 1997 for the 1996 estimates. Consequently, 1997 data for total U.S. refinery working storage capacity were not available. These estimates were derived using the average of the percent difference each year from 1990 through 1996 (EIA 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1997). This capacity was multiplied by an emission factor from Tilkicioglu & Winters (1989) to estimate emissions. Table F-3 provides the activity data, emission factors, and emissions estimates used.

Step 4: Tanker Operations

Methane emissions from the transportation of petroleum on marine vessels were estimated using activity data on crude oil imports, U.S. crude oil production, Alaskan crude oil production, and Alaskan refinery crude oil capacity. All activity data, excluding the Alaskan refinery crude oil capacity estimates, were taken from annual editions of the *Petroleum Supply Annual* (EIA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998). The capacity estimates are reported every two years but were not reported for 1997. The data were derived using the average of the percent difference in Alaskan refinery crude oil capacity each year from 1990 through 1996 (EIA 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1997).

Tilkicioglu & Winters (1989) identified three sources of emissions in the transportation of petroleum. These are emissions from loading Alaskan crude oil onto tankers, emissions from crude oil transfers to terminals, and ballast emissions.

Step 4.1: Loading Alaskan Crude Oil onto Tankers

The net amount of crude oil transported by tankers was determined by subtracting Alaskan refinery capacity from Alaskan crude oil production. This net amount was multiplied by an emission factor from Tilkicioglu & Winters (1989) to estimate emissions. The activity data and emissions estimates are shown in Table F-4.

Step 4.2: Crude Oil Transfers to Terminals

Methane emissions from crude oil transfers were taken from the total domestic crude oil transferred to terminals. This amount was assumed to be 10 percent of total domestic crude oil production less Alaskan crude oil production. To estimate emissions, this transferred amount was multiplied by an emission factor from Tilkicioglu & Winters (1989). The activity data and emissions estimates are shown in Table F-5.

Step 4.3: Ballast Emissions

Ballast emissions are emitted from crude oil transported on marine vessels. This amount was calculated from the sum of Alaskan crude oil on tankers, the amount of crude oil transferred to terminals, and all crude oil imports less Canadian imports. Ballast volume was assumed to be 17 percent of this sum (Tilkicioglu & Winters 1989). This amount was then multiplied by an emission factor to estimate emissions. The activity data and emissions estimates are shown in Table F-6.

Total emissions from tanker operations are shown in Table F-7.

Step 5: Venting and Flaring

Methane emissions from venting and flaring were based on 1990 emissions estimates from EPA (1993) and were held constant through 1997 due to the lack of data available to assess the change in emissions.

Table F-1: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Production Field Operations

Variable	Units	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Total Oil Wells		587,76	610,20	594,18	583,87	581,65	574,48	574,41	573,50
		2	4	9	9	7	3	9	4
% Not Assoc. w/ Natural Gas	%	55.6%	56.4%	56.7%	56.7%	56.6%	56.7%	56.5%	56.5%
Oil Wells in Analysis		326,98	343,87	336,74	330,84	329,36	325,45	324,36	323,88
		2	3	9	3	6	1	2	3
Emission Factors									
Fugitive	kg/well/yr	72							
Routine Maintenance	kg/well/yr	0.15							
Emissions									
Fugitive	mill kg/yr	23.5	24.8	24.3	23.9	23.7	23.4	23.4	23.3
Routine Maintenance	mill kg/yr	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05

Table F-2: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Storage

Variable	Units	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Total Crude Stocks	1000	908,387	893,10	892,86	922,46	928,91	894,96	849,66	868,11
	barrels/yr		2	4	5	5	8	9	
Strategic Petroleum Stocks	1000	585,692	568,50	574,72	587,08	591,67	591,64	566,00	563,42
	barrels/yr		8	4	0	0	0	0	9
Crude Oil Storage	1000	322,695	324,59	318,14	335,38	337,24	303,32	283,66	304,60
	barrels/yr		4	0	5	5	8	9	9
Emission Factors									
Breathing	kg CH ₄ /brl/yr	0.00261							
		2							
Working	kg CH ₄ /brl/yr	0.00291							
		2							
Fugitive	kg CH ₄ /brl/yr	4.99x10 ₅							
Emissions									
Breathing	kg/yr	842,892	847,85	830,99	876,03	880,89	792,30	740,95	795,86
			3	4	9	7	5	5	2
Working	kg/yr	939,602	945,13	926,33	976,55	981,96	883,21	825,96	887,17
			1	9	2	8	0	9	6
Fugitive	kg/yr	16,118	16,213	15,891	16,752	16,845	15,151	14,169	15,219
Total Emissions	mill. kg/yr	1.80	1.81	1.77	1.87	1.88	1.69	1.58	1.70

Table F-3: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Refining

Variable (Jan 1)	Units	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Refinery Storage Capacity	1000 barrels/yr	174,490	171,366	167,736	170,823	164,364	161,305	158,435	155,929
Storage Emission Factor	Mg CH ₄ /brl/yr	5.9 x 10 ⁻⁵							
Emissions	mill. kg/yr	10.29	10.10	9.89	10.07	9.69	9.51	9.34	9.19

Table F-4: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Transportation: Loading Alaskan Crude Oil onto Tankers (Barrels/day)*

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Alaskan Crude Capacity	1,773,452	1,798,216	1,718,690	1,582,175	1,558,762	1,484,000	1,393,000	1,296,000
Alaskan Refinery Crude Capacity	229,850	239,540	222,500	256,300	261,000	275,152	283,350	293,989
Net Tankered	1,543,602	1,558,676	1,496,190	1,325,875	1,297,762	1,208,848	1,109,650	1,002,011
Conversion Factor (gal oil/barrel oil)	42							
Emission factor (lbs/gallon)	0.001							
Emissions @ Loading AK (lbs/day)	64,831	65,464	62,840	55,687	54,506	50,772	46,605	42,084
Methane Content of Gas (%)	20.80%							
Emissions @ Loading AK (mill kg/yr)	2.23	2.26	2.17	1.92	1.88	1.75	1.61	1.45

* Unless otherwise noted

Table F-5: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Transportation: Crude Oil Transfers to Terminals (Barrels/day)*

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
US Crude Production	7,355,307	7,416,545	7,190,773	6,846,666	6,661,578	6,560,000	6,465,000	6,452,000
AK Crude Production	1,773,452	1,798,216	1,718,690	1,582,175	1,558,762	1,484,000	1,393,000	1,296,000
US Crude - AK Crude	5,581,855	5,618,329	5,472,082	5,264,490	5,102,816	5,076,000	5,072,000	5,156,000
10% transported to terminals	558,185	561,833	547,208	526,449	510,282	507,600	507,200	515,600
Conversion Factor (gal oil/barrel oil)	42							
Emission factor (lbs/gallon)	0.001							
Emissions from Transfers (lbs/day)	23,444	23,597	22,983	22,111	21,432	21,319	21,302	21,655
Methane Content of Gas (%)	20.80%							
Emissions from Transfers (mill kg/yr)	0.81	0.81	0.79	0.76	0.74	0.73	0.73	0.75

* Unless otherwise noted

Table F-6: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Transportation: Ballast Emissions (Barrels/day)*

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Crude Imports (less Canadian)	5,251,701	5,038,786	5,300,616	5,886,921	6,079,773	6,125,482	6,909,429	7,787,604
Alaskan Crude (Net Tankered)	1,543,602	1,558,676	1,496,190	1,325,875	1,297,762	1,208,848	1,109,650	1,002,011
10% Crude Prod. Transported to terminals	558,185	561,833	547,208	526,449	510,282	507,600	507,200	515,600
Conversion Factor (gal oil/ barrel oil)	42							
Emission factor (lbs/1000 gallons)	1.4							
Crude Oil Unloaded	7,353,489	7,159,296	7,344,015	7,739,245	7,887,816	7,841,930	8,526,279	9,305,215
Ballast Volume (17% of Crude Unloaded)	1,250,093	1,217,080	1,248,483	1,315,672	1,340,929	1,333,128	1,449,467	1,581,887
Ballast Emissions (lbs/day)	73,505	71,564	73,411	77,361	78,847	78,388	85,229	93,015
Methane Content of Gas (%)	20.80%							
Ballast Emissions (mill kg/yr)	2.53	2.47	2.53	2.67	2.72	2.70	2.94	3.20

* Unless otherwise noted

Table F-7: Total CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Transportation

Year	Million kg/yr
1990	5.6
1991	5.5
1992	5.5
1993	5.4
1994	5.3
1995	5.2
1996	5.3
1997	5.4

Annex G

Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Enteric Fermentation

The following steps were used to estimate methane emissions from enteric fermentation in livestock.

Step 1: Collect Livestock Population Data

All livestock population data, except for horses, was taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) statistical reports. For each animal category, the USDA publishes monthly, annual, and multi-year livestock population and production estimates. Multi-year reports include revision to earlier published data. Recent reports were obtained from the USDA Economics and Statistics System website, at <http://www.mannlib.cornell.edu/usda/>, while historical data were downloaded from the USDA-National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) website at <http://www.usda.gov/nass/pubs/datapr1.htm>.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) publish horse population data. These data were accessed from the FAOSTAT database at <http://apps.fao.org/>. Table G-1 summarizes the published population data by animal type.

Step 2: Estimate Emission Factors for Dairy Cows

Regional dairy cow emission factors from the 1993 Report to Congress (EPA 1993) were used as the starting point for the analysis. These emission factors were used to calibrate a model of methane emissions from dairy cows. The model applies revised regional emission factors that reflect changes in milk production per cow over time. Increases in milk production per cow, in theory, require increases in feed intake, which lead to higher methane emissions per cow. Table G-2 presents the emission factors per head by region used for dairy cows and milk production. The regional definitions are from EPA (1993).

Step 3: Estimate Methane Emissions from Dairy Cattle

Dairy cow emissions for each state were estimated by multiplying the published state populations by the regional emission factors, as calculated in Step 2. Dairy replacement emissions were estimated by multiplying national replacement populations by a national emission factor. The USDA reported the number of replacements 12 to 24 months old as “milk heifers.” It is assumed that the number of dairy cow replacements 0 to 12 months old was equivalent to the number 12 to 24 months old replacements.

Step 4: Estimate Methane Emissions from Beef Cattle

Beef cattle methane emissions were estimated by multiplying published cattle populations by emission factors. Emissions from beef cows and replacements were estimated using state population data and regional emission developed in EPA (1993), as shown in Table G-3. Emissions from slaughter cattle and bulls were estimated using national data and emission factors. The emission factors for slaughter animals represent their entire life, from birth to slaughter. Consequently, the emission factors were multiplied by the national data on total steer and heifer slaughters rather than live populations of calves, heifers, and steers grown for slaughter. Slaughter population numbers were taken from and USDA datasets. The Weanling and Yearling mix was unchanged from earlier estimates derived from discussions with industry representatives.

Step 5: Estimate Methane Emissions from Other Livestock

Methane emissions from sheep, goats, swine, and horses were estimated by multiplying published national population estimates by the national emission factor for each year.

A summary of emissions is provided in Table G-4. Emission factors, national average or regional, are shown by animal type in Table G-5.

Table G-1: Livestock Population (thousand head)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy								
Cows	10,007	9,883	9,714	9,679	9,514	9,494	9,409	9,304
Replacements 0-12	4,135	4,097	4,116	4,088	4,072	4,021	3,902	3,828
Replacements 12-24	4,135	4,097	4,116	4,088	4,072	4,021	3,902	3,828
Beef								
Cows	32,677	32,960	33,453	34,132	35,325	35,628	35,414	34,486
Replacements 0-12	5,141	5,321	5,621	5,896	6,133	6,087	5,839	5,678
Replacements 12-24	5,141	5,321	5,621	5,896	6,133	6,087	5,839	5,678
Slaughter-Weanlings	5,199	5,160	5,150	5,198	5,408	5,612	5,580	5,692
Slaughter-Yearlings	20,794	20,639	20,600	20,794	21,632	22,450	22,322	22,767
Bulls	2,180	2,198	2,220	2,239	2,304	2,395	2,346	2,320
Other								
Sheep	11,356	11,174	10,797	10,201	9,742	8,886	8,454	7,607
Goats	2,545	2,475	2,645	2,605	2,595	2,495	2,495	2,295
Horses	5215	5650	5650	5850	5900	6000	6,000	6,150
Hogs	54,014	56,478	58,532	57,999	60,018	59,792	56,716	58,671

Table G-2: Dairy Cow CH₄ Emission Factors and Milk Production Per Cow

Region	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cow Emission Factors (kg/head)								
North Atlantic	116.2	118.8	121.3	121.0	122.3	124.7	124.8	125.8
South Atlantic	127.7	128.7	132.3	132.2	134.5	134.4	132.9	136.5
North Central	105.0	105.7	107.8	107.6	109.8	111.2	110.0	111.8
South Central	116.2	116.1	117.9	119.2	121.1	122.2	120.9	120.5
West	130.4	129.4	132.7	132.3	135.6	134.8	137.3	139.4
Milk Production (kg/year)								
North Atlantic	6,574	6,811	7,090	7,055	7,185	7,424	7,440	7,542
South Atlantic	6,214	6,300	6,622	6,608	6,813	6,792	6,673	6,990
North Central	6,334	6,413	6,640	6,627	6,862	6,987	6,881	7,080
South Central	5,696	5,687	5,849	5,971	6,148	6,248	6,128	6,098
West	8,339	8,255	8,573	8,530	8,874	8,789	9,047	9,260

Table G-3: CH₄ Emission Factors Beef Cows and Replacements (kg/head/yr)

Region	Replacements (0-12)	Replacements (12-24)	Mature Cows
North Atlantic	19.2	63.8	61.5
South Atlantic	22.7	67.5	70.0
North Central	20.4	60.8	59.5
South Central	23.6	67.7	70.9
West	22.7	64.8	69.1

Table G-4: Methane Emissions from Livestock Enteric Fermentation (Tg)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy	1.47	1.46	1.47	1.47	1.47	1.47	1.46	1.45
Cows	1.15	1.14	1.15	1.15	1.15	1.16	1.15	1.15
Replacements 0-12	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08
Replacements 12-24	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.23	0.23
Beef	3.95	3.98	4.04	4.12	4.27	4.34	4.29	4.24
Cows	2.18	2.20	2.23	2.28	2.36	2.38	2.36	2.30
Replacements 0-12	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.13	0.13
Replacements 12-24	0.33	0.35	0.37	0.38	0.40	0.40	0.38	0.37
Slaughter-Weanlings	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.13
Slaughter-Yearlings	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.98	1.02	1.06	1.06	1.08
Bulls	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.23	0.23
Other	0.28	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.28	0.27	0.27
Sheep	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.06
Goats	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Horses	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.11
Hogs	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09
Total	5.70	5.73	5.80	5.88	6.03	6.10	6.02	5.96

Table G-5: Enteric Fermentation CH₄ Emission Factors

Animal Type	kg/head/year
Dairy	
Cows	regional
Replacements 0-12	19.6
Replacements 12-24	58.8
Beef	
Cows	regional
Replacements 0-12	regional
Replacements 12-24	regional
Slaughter-Weanlings	23.1
Slaughter-Yearlings	47.3
Bulls	100.0
Other	
Sheep	8.0
Goats	5.0
Horses	18.0
Hogs	1.5

Annex H

Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Manure Management

The following steps were used to estimate methane emissions from the management of livestock manure.

Step 1: Collect Livestock Population Data

All livestock population data, except for horses, were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) statistical reports. For each animal category, the USDA publishes monthly, annual, and multi-year livestock population and production estimates. Multi-year reports include revisions to earlier published data. Recent reports were obtained from the USDA Economics and Statistics System website, at <http://www.mannlib.cornell.edu/usda/>, while historical data were downloaded from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) website at <http://www.usda.gov/nass/pubs/dataprd1.htm>.

Dairy cow and swine population data by farm size for each state, used in Step 2, were found in the *1992 Census of Agriculture* published by the U.S. Department of Commerce (DOC). This census is conducted every five years. Data from the census were obtained from the USDA NASS website at <http://www.nass.usda.gov/census/>.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) publishes horse population data. These data were accessed from the FAOSTAT database at <http://apps.fao.org/>. Table H-1 summarizes the published population data by animal type.

Step 2: Estimate State Methane Conversion Factors for Dairy Cows and Swine

Data from EPA (1993) were used for assessing dairy and swine manure management practices by farm size. Based on this assessment, an average methane conversion factor (MCF) was assigned to each farm size category for dairy and swine farms, indicating the portion of the methane producing potential realized. Because larger farms tend to use liquid manure management systems, which produce more methane, the MCFs applied to them were higher for smaller farm sizes.

Using the dairy cow and swine populations by farm size in the *DOC Census of Agriculture* for each state, weighted average dairy and swine MCFs were calculated for each state. The MCF value for each state reflected the distribution of animals among farm sizes within the state. Table H-2 provides estimated MCF values.

Step 3: Estimate Methane Emissions from Swine

For each state, the total swine population was multiplied by volatile solids (VS) production rates to determine total VS production. Estimated state level emissions were calculated as the product of total VS production multiplied by the maximum methane production potential for swine manure (B_o), and the state MCF. Total U.S. emissions are the sum of the state level emissions. The VS production rate and maximum methane production potential are shown in Table H-3.

Step 4: Estimate Methane Emissions from Dairy Cattle

Methane emissions from dairy cow manure were estimated using the same method as emissions from swine (Step 3), but with an added analysis to estimate changes in manure production associated with changes in feed intake, or dry matter intake (DMi). It is assumed that manure and VS production will change linearly with changes in dry matter intake (DMi).

Changes in DMi were calculated reflecting changes in feed intake associated with changes in milk production per cow per year. To estimate the changes in feed intake, a simplified emission factor model was used for dairy cow enteric fermentation emissions (see Annex G). This model estimates the change in DMi over time relative to 1990, which was used to calculate VS production by dairy cows by state, as summarized in the following equation: (Dairy cow population) x (VS produced per cow) x (DMi scaling factor). Methane emissions were then calculated as follows:

(VS produced) x (Maximum methane production potential for dairy cow manure) x (State-specific MCF). Total emissions were finally calculated as the sum of the state level emissions. The 1990 VS production rate and maximum methane production potential are shown in Table H-3.

Step 5: Estimate Methane Emissions for Other Animals

The 1990 methane emissions for the other animal types were estimated using the detailed method described above for dairy cows and swine (EPA 1993). This process was not repeated for subsequent years for these other animal types. Instead, national populations of each of the animal types were used to scale the 1990 emissions estimates to the period 1991 through 1997.

Emission estimates are summarized in Table H-4.

Table H-1: Livestock Population (1000 head)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cattle	14,143	13,980	13,830	13,767	13,686	13,514	13,310	13,133
Dairy Cows	10,007	9,883	9,714	9,679	9,614	9,493	9,408	9,304
Dairy Heifers	4,135	4,097	4,116	4,088	4,072	4,021	3,902	3,828
Swine	54,014	56,478	58,532	57,999	60,018	59,792	56,716	58,671
Beef Cattle	86,065	87,266	88,546	90,317	92,754	94,364	93,683	91,997
Feedlot Steers	7,252	7,927	7,404	7,838	8,063	7,635	7,822	7,925
Feedlot Heifers	3,753	4,144	3,884	4,094	4,088	3,934	4,063	4,126
Feedlot	88	98	92	95	93	97	96	97
Cow/Other								
NOF Bulls	2,180	2,198	2,220	2,239	2,304	2,395	2,346	2,320
NOF Calves	23,909	23,854	24,118	24,209	24,692	25,184	24,644	24,355
NOF Heifers	8,740	8,828	9,261	9,727	10,179	10,790	10,800	10,751
NOF Steers	7,554	7,356	8,208	8,081	8,108	8,796	8,594	8,035
NOF Cows	32,589	32,860	33,359	34,033	35,227	35,531	35,318	34,389
Sheep	11,356	11,174	10,797	10,201	9,742	8,886	8,454	7,607
Ewes>1yr	7,961	7,799	7,556	7,140	6,775	6,184	5,875	5,317
Rams/Weth>1yr	369	361	350	331	314	282	269	244
Ewes<1yr	1,491	1,464	1,432	1,349	1,277	1,167	1,107	1,011
Rams/Weth<1yr	381	373	366	348	332	296	282	258
Sheep on Feed	1,154	1,177	1,093	1,032	1,044	957	921	777
Goats	2,545	2,475	2,645	2,605	2,595	2,495	2,495	2,295
Poultry	1,703,037	1,767,513	1,832,308	1,895,851	1,971,404	2,031,455	2,091,364	2,140,362
Hens>1yr	119,551	117,178	121,103	131,688	134,876	133,767	137,944	140,686
Pullets laying	153,916	162,943	163,397	158,938	163,628	164,526	165,304	170,398
Pullets>3mo	34,222	34,272	34,710	33,833	32,808	32,813	31,316	34,174
Pullets<3mo	38,945	42,344	45,160	47,941	44,875	45,494	44,611	50,693
Chickens	6,546	6,857	7,113	7,240	7,319	7,641	7,243	7,544
Broilers	1,172,830	1,227,430	1,280,498	1,338,862	1,403,508	1,465,134	1,519,640	1,552,052
Other (Lost)	6,971	7,278	7,025	6,992	12,744	8,152	8,124	9,972
Other (Sold)	41,672	39,707	41,538	39,606	40,272	40,917	39,588	38,198
Turkeys	128,384	129,505	131,764	130,750	131,375	133,012	137,595	136,645
Horses	5,650	5,650	5,850	5,900	6,000	6,000	6,050	6,150

Table H-2: Dairy Cow and Swine CH₄ Conversion Factors

State	Dairy Cow	Swine	State	Dairy Cow	Swine
AK	0.35	0.35	MT	0.16	0.39
AL	0.23	0.28	NC	0.20	0.65
AR	0.45	0.59	ND	0.05	0.22
AZ	0.09	0.68	NE	0.08	0.34
CA	0.44	0.44	NH	0.12	0.36
CO	0.31	0.46	NJ	0.13	0.26
CT	0.19	0.01	NM	0.42	0.47
DE	0.21	0.29	NV	0.36	0.50
FL	0.41	0.23	NY	0.11	0.22
GA	0.27	0.35	OH	0.07	0.30
HI	0.40	0.40	OK	0.13	0.31
IA	0.04	0.38	OR	0.25	0.35
ID	0.23	0.27	PA	0.06	0.35
IL	0.07	0.42	RI	0.07	0.59
IN	0.06	0.43	SC	0.29	0.40
KS	0.09	0.33	SD	0.06	0.26
KY	0.06	0.30	TN	0.14	0.28
LA	0.19	0.30	TX	0.31	0.30
MA	0.13	0.40	UT	0.21	0.34
MD	0.15	0.42	VA	0.17	0.34
ME	0.10	0.01	VT	0.11	0.09
MI	0.12	0.42	WA	0.29	0.29
MN	0.04	0.38	WI	0.05	0.27
MO	0.07	0.33	WV	0.11	0.11
MS	0.17	0.35	WY	0.12	0.20

Table H-3: Dairy Cow and Swine Constants

Description	Dairy Cow	Swine	Source
Typical Animal Mass (kg)	640	150	ASAE 1995
kg VS/day per 1000 kg mass	10	8.5	ASAE 1995
Maximum methane generation potential (B ₀) m ³ methane/kg VS	0.24	0.47	EPA 1992

Table H-4: CH₄ Emissions from Livestock Manure Management (Tg)

Animal Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dairy Cattle	0.75	0.75	0.76	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.81
Dairy Cows	0.58	0.59	0.60	0.61	0.63	0.63	0.64	0.65
Dairy Heifers	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.15
Swine	1.37	1.44	1.51	1.51	1.58	1.60	1.55	1.62
Beef Cattle	0.20	0.20	0.21	0.21	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.23
Feedlot Steers	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Feedlot Heifers	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Feedlot	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Cow/Other								
NOF Bulls	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
NOF Calves	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
NOF Heifers	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
NOF Steers	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
NOF Cows	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.11
Sheep	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
Ewes > 1 yr	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.002
Rams/Weth > 1 yr	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Ewes < 1 yr	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Rams/Weth < 1 yr	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Sheep on Feed	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Goats	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
Poultry	0.26	0.27	0.28	0.28	0.29	0.30	0.30	0.31
Hens > 1 yr	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
Pullets laying	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
Pullets > 3 mo	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Pullets < 3 mo	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Chickens	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Broilers	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.13
Other (Lost)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Other (Sold)	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Turkeys	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Horses	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03

Annex I

Methodology for Estimating Methane Emissions from Landfills

Landfill methane is produced from a complex process of waste decomposition and subsequent fermentation under anaerobic conditions. The total amount of methane produced in a landfill from a given amount of waste and the rate at which it is produced depends upon the characteristics of the waste, the climate, and operating practices at the landfill. To estimate the amount of methane produced in a landfill in a given year the following information is needed: quantity of waste in the landfill, the waste characteristics, the residence time of the waste in the landfill, and landfill management practices.

The amount of methane emitted from a landfill is less than the amount of methane produced in a landfill. If no measures are taken to extract the methane, a portion of the methane will oxidize as it travels through the top layer of the landfill cover. The portion of the methane that oxidizes turns primarily to carbon dioxide (CO₂). If the methane is extracted and combusted (e.g., flared or used for energy), then that portion of the methane produced in the landfill will not be emitted as methane, but again would be converted to CO₂. In general, the CO₂ emitted is of biogenic origin and primarily results from the decomposition—either aerobic or anaerobic—of organic matter such as food or yard wastes.⁸

To take into account the inter-related processes of methane production in the landfill and methane emission, this analysis relied on a simulation of the population of landfills and waste disposal. A starting population of landfills was initialized with characteristics from the latest survey of municipal solid waste (MSW) landfills (EPA 1988). Using actual national waste disposal data, waste was simulated to be placed in these landfills each year from 1990 to 1997. If landfills reached their design capacity, they were simulated to have closed. New landfills were simulated to open only if annual disposal capacity was less than total waste disposal. Of note is that closed landfills continue to produce and emit methane for many years. This analysis tracks these closed landfills throughout the analysis period, and includes their estimated methane production and emissions.

The age of the waste in each landfill was tracked explicitly. This tracking allowed the annual methane production in each landfill to be estimated. Methane produced in industrial landfills was also estimated. It was assumed to be 7 percent of the total methane produced in MSW landfills. Finally, methane recovered and combusted and methane oxidized were subtracted to estimate final methane emissions.

Using this approach, landfill population and waste disposal characteristics were simulated over time explicitly, thereby allowing the time-dependent nature of methane production to be modeled. However, the characteristics used to initialize the landfill population in the model were relatively old and may not represent the current set of operating landfills adequately. There is also uncertainty in the methane production equation developed in EPA (1993), as well as in the estimate of methane oxidation (10 percent).

Step 1: Estimate Municipal Solid Waste in Place Contributing to Methane Emissions

The landfill population model was initialized to define the population of landfills at the beginning of 1990. Waste was simulated to be placed into these landfills for the years 1990 through 1997 using data on the total waste landfilled from BioCycle (1998). The annual acceptance rates of the landfills were used to apportion the total waste by landfill. More waste was preferentially disposed in “Large” landfills (see Table I-3), reflecting the trend toward fewer and more centralized disposal facilities. The model updates the landfill characteristics each year, calculating the total waste in place and the full time profile of waste disposal. This time profile was used to estimate the portion of the waste that contributes to methane emissions. Table I-1 shows the amount of waste landfilled each year and the total estimated waste in place contributing to methane emissions.

⁸ Emissions and sinks of biogenic carbon are accounted for in the Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter.

Step 2: Estimate Landfill Methane Production

Emissions for each landfill were estimated by applying the emissions model (EPA 1993) to the landfill waste in place contributing to methane production. Total emissions were then calculated as the sum of emissions from all landfills.

Step 3: Estimate Industrial Landfill Methane Production

Industrial landfills receive waste from factories, processing plants, and other manufacturing activities. Because there were no data available on methane generation at industrial landfills, the approach used was to assume that industrial methane production equaled about 7 percent of MSW landfill methane production (EPA 1993), as shown below in Table I-2.

Step 4: Estimate Methane Recovery

To estimate landfill gas (LFG) recovered per year, data on current and planned LFG recovery projects in the United States were obtained from Governmental Advisory Associates (GAA 1994). The GAA report, considered to be the most comprehensive source of information on gas recovery in the United States, has estimates for gas recovery in 1990 and 1992. Their data set showed that 1.20 and 1.44 teragrams (Tg) of methane were recovered nationally by municipal solid waste landfills in 1990 and 1992, respectively. In addition, a number of landfills were believed to recover and flare methane without energy recovery and were not included in the GAA database. To account for the amount of methane flared without energy recovery, the estimate of gas recovered was increased by 25 percent (EPA 1993). Therefore, net methane recovery from landfills was assumed to equal 1.50 Tg in 1990, and 1.80 Tg in 1992. The 1990 estimate of methane recovered was used for 1991 and the 1992 estimate was used for the period 1992 to 1997. EPA is currently reviewing more detailed information on LFG recovery projects and expects that the total recovery figure could be significantly higher.

Step 5: Estimate Methane Oxidation

As discussed above, a portion of the methane escaping from a landfill through its cover oxidizes in the top layer of the soil. The amount of oxidation that occurs is uncertain and depends upon the characteristics of the soil and the environment. For purposes of this analysis, it was assumed that 10 percent of the methane produced was oxidized in the soil.

Step 6: Estimate Total Methane Emissions

Total methane emissions were calculated by adding emissions from MSW and industrial waste, and subtracting methane recovered and oxidized, as shown in Table I-2.

Table I-1: Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) Contributing to CH₄ Emissions (Tg)

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Total MSW Generated ^a	267	255	265	279	293	297	297	309
Percent of MSW Landfilled ^a	77%	76%	72%	71%	67%	63%	62%	61%
Total MSW Landfilled	206	194	191	198	196	187	184	189
MSW Contributing to Emissions ^b	4,926	5,027	5,162	5,292	5,428	5,560	5,677	5,791

^a Source: BioCycle (1998). The data, originally reported in short tons, are converted to metric tons.

^b The EPA emissions model (EPA 1993) defines all waste younger than 30 years as contributing to methane emissions.

Table I-2: CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Tg)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
MSW Generation	11.6	11.8	12.2	12.5	12.8	13.2	13.5	13.8
Large Landfills	4.53	4.62	4.76	4.91	5.11	5.29	5.45	5.64
Medium Landfills	5.79	5.91	6.07	6.23	6.36	6.53	6.62	6.70
Small Landfills	1.27	1.30	1.33	1.36	1.39	1.41	1.42	1.44
Industrial Generation	0.73	0.75	0.77	0.79	0.81	0.83	0.85	0.87
Potential Emissions	12.3	12.6	12.9	13.3	13.7	14.1	14.3	14.7
Recovery	(1.50)	(1.50)	(1.80)	(1.80)	(1.80)	(1.80)	(1.80)	(1.80)
Oxidation	(1.09)	(1.12)	(1.12)	(1.16)	(1.19)	(1.23)	(1.26)	(1.20)
Net Emissions	9.82	10.0	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.6

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table I-3: Municipal Solid Waste Landfill Size Definitions (Tg)

Description	Waste in Place
Small Landfills	< 0.4
Medium Landfills	0.4 - 2.0
Large Landfills	> 2.0

Annex J

Global Warming Potential Values

Table J-1: Global Warming Potentials and Atmospheric Lifetimes (years)

Gas	Atmospheric Lifetime	GWP ^a
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	50-200	1
Methane (CH ₄) ^b	12±3	21
Nitrous oxide (N ₂ O)	120	310
HFC-23	264	11,700
HFC-125	32.6	2,800
HFC-134a	14.6	1,300
HFC-143a	48.3	3,800
HFC-152a	1.5	140
HFC-227ea	36.5	2,900
HFC-236fa	209	6,300
HFC-4310mee	17.1	1,300
CF ₄	50,000	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	10,000	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	2,600	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	3,200	7,400
SF ₆	3,200	23,900

Source: (IPCC 1996)

^a 100 year time horizon

^b The methane GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

Annex K

Ozone Depleting Substance Emissions

Ozone is present in both the stratosphere⁹, where it shields the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation, and at lower concentrations in the troposphere¹⁰, where it is the main component of anthropogenic photochemical “smog”. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and other compounds that contain chlorine or bromine have been found to destroy ozone in the stratosphere, and are commonly referred to as ozone-depleting substances (ODSs). If left unchecked, ozone depletion could result in a dangerous increase of ultraviolet radiation reaching the earth’s surface. In 1987, nations around the world signed the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. This landmark agreement created an international framework for limiting, and ultimately eliminating, the use and emission of most ozone depleting substances, which are used in a variety of industrial applications, including refrigeration and air conditioning, foam blowing, fire extinguishing, aerosol propellants, sterilization, and solvent cleaning.

In the United States, the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990 provide the legal instrument for implementation of the *Montreal Protocol* controls. The Clean Air Act classifies ozone depleting substances as either Class I or Class II, depending upon the ozone depletion potential (ODP) of the compound.¹¹ The production of CFCs, halons, carbon tetrachloride, and methyl chloroform, all Class I substances, has already ended in the United States. However, because stocks of these chemicals remain available and in use, they will continue to be emitted for many years from applications such as refrigeration and air conditioning equipment, fire extinguishing systems, and metered dose inhalers. As a result, emissions of Class I compounds will continue, in ever decreasing amounts, into the early part of the next century. Class II substances, which are comprised of hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), are being phased-out at a later date because of their lower ozone depletion potentials. These compounds are serving as interim replacements for Class I compounds in many industrial applications. The use and emissions of HCFCs in the United States is anticipated to increase over the next several years. Under current controls, the production of all HCFCs in the United States will end by the year 2030.

In addition to contributing to ozone depletion, CFCs, halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and HCFCs are also significant greenhouse gases. The total impact of ozone depleting substances on global warming is not clear, however, because ozone is also a greenhouse gas. The depletion of ozone in the stratosphere by ODSs has an indirect negative radiative forcing, while most ODSs have a positive direct radiative forcing effect. The IPCC has prepared both direct GWPs and net (i.e., combined direct and indirect effects) GWP ranges for some of the most common ozone depleting substances (IPCC 1996). Direct GWPs account for the direct global warming impact of the emitted gas. Net GWP ranges account for both the direct impact of the emitted gas and the indirect effects resulting from the destruction of ozone.

Although the IPCC emission inventory guidelines do not include reporting emissions of ozone depleting substances, the United States believes that no inventory is complete without the inclusion of these emissions. Emission estimates for several ozone depleting substances are provided in Table K-1.

⁹ The stratosphere is the layer from the top of the troposphere up to about 50 kilometers. Approximately 90 percent of atmospheric ozone lies within the stratosphere. The greatest concentration of ozone occurs in the middle of the stratosphere, in a region commonly called the ozone-layer.

¹⁰ The troposphere is the layer from the ground up to about 11 kilometers near the poles and 16 kilometers in equatorial regions (i.e., the lowest layer of the atmosphere, where humans live). It contains roughly 80 percent of the mass of all gases in the atmosphere and is the site for weather processes including most of the water vapor and clouds.

¹¹ Substances with an ozone depletion potential of 0.2 or greater are classified as Class I. All other substances that may deplete stratospheric ozone but which do not have an ODP of 0.2 or greater, are classified as Class II.

Table K-1: Emissions of Ozone Depleting Substances (Mg)

Compound	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Class I								
CFC-11	53,500	48,300	45,100	45,400	36,600	36,200	26,600	25,100
CFC-12	112,600	103,500	80,500	79,300	57,600	51,800	35,500	23,100
CFC-113	26,350	20,550	17,100	17,100	8,550	8,550	+	+
CFC-114	4,700	3,600	3,000	3,000	1,600	1,600	300	100
CFC-115	4,200	4,000	3,800	3,600	3,300	3,000	3,200	2,900
Carbon Tetrachloride	32,300	31,000	21,700	18,600	15,500	4,700	+	+
Methyl Chloroform	158,300	154,700	108,300	92,850	77,350	46,400	+	+
Halon-1211	1,000	1,100	1,000	1,100	1,000	1,100	1,100	1,100
Halon-1301	1,800	1,800	1,700	1,700	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,300
Class II								
HCFC-22	79,789	79,540	79,545	71,224	71,386	74,229	77,472	79,620
HCFC-123	+	+	285	570	844	1,094	1,335	1,555
HCFC-124	+	+	429	2,575	4,768	5,195	5,558	5,894
HCFC-141b	+	+	+	1,909	6,529	11,608	14,270	12,113
HCFC-142b	+	+	3,526	9,055	14,879	21,058	27,543	28,315
HCFC-225ca/cb	+	+	+	+	+	565	579	593

Source: EPA estimates

+ Does not exceed 10 Mg

Methodology and Data Sources

Emissions of ozone depleting substances were estimated using two simulation models: the Atmospheric and Health Effects Framework (AHEF) and EPA's Vintaging Model.

The Atmospheric and Health Effects Framework model contains estimates of U.S. domestic use of each of the ozone depleting substances. These estimates were based upon data that industry reports to EPA and other published material. The annual consumption of each compound was divided into various end-uses based upon historical trends and research into specific industrial applications. These end-uses include refrigerants, foam blowing agents, solvents, aerosol propellants, sterilants, and fire extinguishing agents.

With the exception of aerosols, solvents, and certain foam blowing agents, emissions of ozone depleting substances are not instantaneous, but instead occur gradually over time (i.e., emissions in a given year are the result of both ODS use in that year and use in previous years). Each end-use has a certain release profile, which gives the percentage of the compound that is released to the atmosphere each year until all releases have occurred. In refrigeration equipment, for example, the initial charge is released or leaked slowly over the lifetime of the equipment, which could be 20 or more years. In addition, not all of the refrigerant is ultimately emitted—some will be recovered when the equipment is retired from operation.

The AHEF model was used to estimate emissions of ODSs that were in use prior to the controls implemented under the *Montreal Protocol*. This included CFCs, halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and HCFC-22. Certain HCFCs, such as HCFC-123, HCFC-124, HCFC-141b, HCFC-142b, HCFC-225ca and HCFC-225cb, have also entered the market as interim substitutes for ODSs. Emissions estimates for these compounds were taken from EPA's Vintaging Model.

The Vintaging Model was used to estimate the use and emissions of various ODS substitutes, including HCFCs. The name refers to the fact that the model tracks the use and emissions of various compounds by the annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter service in each end-use. The Vintaging Model is a “bottom-up” model. Information was collected regarding the sales of equipment that use ODS substitutes and the amount of the chemical required by each unit of equipment. Emissions for each end-use were estimated by applying annual leak rates and release profiles, as in the AHEF. By aggregating the data for more than 40 different end-uses, the model produces estimates of annual use and emissions of each compound.

Uncertainties

Uncertainties exist with regard to the levels of chemical production, equipment sales, equipment characteristics, and end-use emissions profiles that are used by these models.

Annex L

Sulfur Dioxide Emissions

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes affects the Earth's radiative budget through photochemical transformation into sulfate aerosols that can (1) scatter sunlight back to space, thereby reducing the radiation reaching the Earth's surface; (2) affect cloud formation; and (3) affect atmospheric chemical composition (e.g., stratospheric ozone, by providing surfaces for heterogeneous chemical reactions). The overall effect of SO₂ derived aerosols on radiative forcing is believed to be negative (IPCC 1996). However, because SO₂ is short-lived and unevenly distributed through the atmosphere, its radiative forcing impacts are highly uncertain. Sulfur dioxide emissions have been provided below in Table L-1.

The major source of SO₂ emissions in the United States was the burning of sulfur containing fuels, mainly coal. Metal smelting and other industrial processes also released significant quantities of SO₂. As a result, the largest contributors to overall U.S. emissions of SO₂ were electric utilities, accounting for 64 percent in 1997 (see Table L-2). Coal combustion accounted for approximately 96 percent of SO₂ emissions from electric utilities in the same year. The second largest source was industrial fuel combustion, which produced 17 percent of 1997 SO₂ emissions. Overall, sulfur dioxide emissions in the United States decreased by 16 percent from 1990 to 1997. Seventy-six percent of this decline came from reductions from electric utilities, primarily due to increased consumption of low sulfur coal from surface mines in western states.

Sulfur dioxide is important for reasons other than its effect on radiative forcing. It is a major contributor to the formation of urban smog and acid rain. As a contributor to urban smog, high concentrations of SO₂ can cause significant increases in acute and chronic respiratory diseases. In addition, once SO₂ is emitted, it is chemically transformed in the atmosphere and returns to earth as the primary contributor to acid deposition, or acid rain. Acid rain has been found to accelerate the decay of building materials and paints, and to cause the acidification of lakes and streams and damage trees. As a result of these harmful effects, the United States has regulated the emissions of SO₂ under the Clean Air Act. The EPA has also developed a strategy to control these emissions via four programs: (1) the National Ambient Air Quality Standards program,¹² (2) New Source Performance Standards,¹³ (3) the New Source Review/Prevention of Significant Deterioration Program,¹⁴ and (4) the sulfur dioxide allowance program.¹⁵

References

EPA (1998) *National Air Pollutant Emissions Trends Report, 1900-1997*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, Research Triangle Park, NC.

¹² [42 U.S.C § 7409, CAA § 109]

¹³ [42 U.S.C § 7411, CAA § 111]

¹⁴ [42 U.S.C § 7473, CAA § 163]

¹⁵ [42 U.S.C § 7651, CAA § 401]

Table L-1: SO₂ Emissions (Gg)

Sector/Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Energy	20,526	20,031	19,851	19,514	19,003	16,583	16,804	17,258
Stationary Sources	18,407	17,959	17,684	17,459	17,134	14,724	15,253	15,658
Mobile Sources	1,728	1,729	1,791	1,708	1,524	1,525	1,217	1,252
Oil and Gas Activities	390	343	377	347	344	334	334	349
Industrial Processes	1,306	1,187	1,186	1,159	1,135	1,116	1,125	1,175
Chemical Manufacturing	269	254	252	244	249	260	260	273
Metals Processing	658	555	558	547	510	481	481	501
Storage and Transport	6	9	8	4	1	2	2	2
Other Industrial Processes	362	360	360	355	361	365	371	387
Miscellaneous*	11	10	9	8	13	8	12	12
Solvent Use	+	+	+	1	1	1	1	1
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Graphic Arts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	NA	NA	+	NA	+	+	+	+
Surface Coating	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other Industrial	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Non-industrial	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Agriculture	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Waste	38	40	40	65	54	43	43	45
Waste Combustion	38	39	39	56	48	42	42	44
Landfills	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	1	1	1
Miscellaneous Waste	+	1	1	8	5	+	+	+
Total	21,871	21,259	21,077	20,738	20,192	17,742	17,973	18,478

Source: (EPA 1998)

* Miscellaneous includes other combustion and fugitive dust categories.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

NA (Not Available)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table L-2: SO₂ Emissions from Electric Utilities (Gg)

Fuel Type	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Coal	13,807	13,687	13,448	13,179	12,985	10,526	11,010	11,368
Petroleum	580	591	495	555	474	375	395	440
Natural Gas	1	1	1	1	1	8	2	4
Misc. Internal Combustion	45	41	42	45	48	50	52	55
Total	14,432	14,320	13,986	13,779	13,507	10,959	11,460	11,868

Source: (EPA 1998)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Annex M

Complete List of Sources

Chapter/Source	Gas(es)
Energy	
Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion	CO ₂
Stationary Sources (excluding CO ₂)	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Mobile Sources (excluding CO ₂)	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Coal Mining	CH ₄
Natural Gas Systems	CH ₄
Petroleum Systems	CH ₄
Natural Gas Flaring and Criteria Pollutant Emissions from Oil and Gas Activities	CO ₂ , CO, NO _x , NMVOC
International Bunker Fuels	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption	CO ₂
Non-Energy Use Carbon Stored	CO ₂ (sink)
Industrial Processes	
Cement Manufacture	CO ₂
Lime Manufacture	CO ₂
Limestone and Dolomite Use	CO ₂
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	CO ₂
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	CO ₂
Iron and Steel Production	CO ₂
Ammonia Manufacture	CO ₂
Ferroalloy Production	CO ₂
Petrochemical Production	CH ₄
Silicon Carbide Production	CH ₄
Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O
Nitric Acid Production	N ₂ O
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	HFCs, PFCs ^a
Aluminum Production	CO ₂ , CF ₄ , C ₂ F ₆
HCFC-22 Production	HFC-23
Semiconductor Manufacture	HFCs, PFCs, SF ₆ ^b
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	SF ₆
Magnesium Production and Processing	SF ₆
Industrial Sources of Criteria Pollutants	CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Solvent Use	
	CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Agriculture	
Enteric Fermentation	CH ₄
Manure Management	CH ₄ , N ₂ O
Rice Cultivation	CH ₄
Agricultural Soil Management	N ₂ O
Agricultural Residue Burning	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x
Land-Use Change and Forestry	
Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks	CO ₂ (sink)
Changes in Non-Forest Soil Carbon Stocks	CO ₂ (sink)
Waste	
Landfills	CH ₄
Wastewater Treatment	CH ₄
Human Sewage	N ₂ O
Waste Combustion	N ₂ O
Waste Sources of Criteria Pollutants	CO, NO _x , NMVOC

^a In 1997, included HFC-23, HFC-125, HFC-134a, HFC-143a, HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-236fa, HFC-4310mee, C₄F₁₀, C₆F₁₄, PFC/PFPEs

^b Included such gases as HFC-23, CF₄, C₂F₆, SF₆

Annex N

IPCC Reporting Tables

This annex contains a series of tables which summarize the emissions data discussed in the body of this report for the year 1997. The data in these tables conform with guidelines established by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997; vol. 1) for consistent international reporting of greenhouse gas emissions inventories. The format of these tables does not always correspond directly with the calculations discussed in the body of the report. In these instances, the data have been reorganized to conform to IPCC reporting guidelines.¹⁶ As a result, slight differences may exist between the figures presented in the IPCC tables and those in the body of the report. These differences are merely an artifact of variations in reporting structures; total U.S. emissions are unaffected.

Title of Inventory	<i>Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-1997</i>
Contact Name	Wiley Barbour
Title	Senior Analyst
Organisation	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Address	Climate Policy and Programs Division (2175) 401 M Street, SW Washington, DC 20460
Phone	(202) 260-6972
Fax	(202) 260-6405
E-Mail	barbour.wiley@epa.gov
Is uncertainty addressed?	Yes
Related documents filed with IPCC	Yes

¹⁶ An additional table has been added (Table 2, sheet 3) that addresses emissions of HFCs and PFCs by individual gas. The standard IPCC reporting format for these gases is not sufficiently detailed. It was not possible to disaggregate by gas the emissions of halocarbons and SF₆ from certain source categories or portions of source categories. In these cases, aggregate Global Warming Potential weighted emissions are reported in million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE).

TABLE 1 SECTORAL REPORT FOR ENERGY (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 3)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)							
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NM VOC	SO ₂
Total Energy	5,390,398	10,025	256	20,352	65,493	8,217	17,258
A Fuel Combustion Activities (Reference Approach)	5,415,400	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
A Fuel Combustion Activities (Sectoral Approach)	5,375,164	633	256	20,248	65,163	7,730	16,909
1 Energy Industries	1,951,908	24	27	5,605	368	46	11,868
a Public Electricity and Heat Production	1,951,908	24	27	5,605	368	46	11,868
b Petroleum Refining [a]	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE
c Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries [a]	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE
2 Manufacturing Industries and Construction	1,125,447	151	18	2,967	1,007	197	3,053
a Iron and Steel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
b Non-Ferrous Metals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
c Chemicals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
d Pulp, Paper and Print	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
e Food Processing, Beverages and Tobacco	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
f Other (please specify)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

[a] Included under "Manufacturing Industries and Construction"

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 1 SECTORAL REPORT FOR ENERGY (1997)
(Sheet 2 of 3)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)							
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NM VOC	SO ₂
3 Transport	1,634,556	242.4	207.40	10,519	60,794	6,949	1,252
a Civil Aviation	137,569	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE
b Road Transportation	1,271,038	222.0	197.93	6,382	45,593	4,744	290
c Railways	32,371	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE
d Navigation	56,402	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE
e Miscellaneous Non-Highway	137,175	20.4	9.47	4,137	15,201	2,205	962
Pipeline Transport	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE
4 Other Sectors	616,927	215.2	4.13	1,157	2,994	538	737
a Commercial/Institutional	238,591	24.2	0.88	379	235	22	-
b Residential	378,335	191.0	3.25	779	2,759	515	-
c Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	IE	-
5 Other (U.S. Territories)	46,326	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels	15,235	9,391.7	NE	104	330	488	349
1 Solid Fuels	NE	3,274.1	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
a Coal Mining	NE	3,274.1	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
b Solid Fuel Transformation	NE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
c Other (please specify)	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Oil and Natural Gas	15,235	6,117.6	NE	104	330	488	349
a Oil	NE	270.7	NE	-	-	-	-
b Natural Gas	NE	5,846.9	NE	-	-	-	-
c Venting and Flaring	15,235	IE	NE	-	-	-	-

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 1 SECTORAL REPORT FOR ENERGY (1997)
(Sheet 3 of 3)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)							
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NM VOC	SO ₂
Memo Items [a]							
International Bunkers	97,542	1.8	2.76	1,448	111	46	NE
Aviation	50,974	1.4	1.62	202	84	13	NE
Marine	46,568	0.4	1.15	1,246	27	33	NE
CO₂ Emissions from Biomass [b]	216,561						

[a] Not included in energy totals.

[b] CO₂ emission from biomass are estimated from energy production industries, industrial, transportation, residential, and commercial sectors. Estimates of non-CO₂ emissions are incorporated in sectoral estimates under heading A.1.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 2 SECTORAL REPORT FOR INDUSTRIAL PROCESSES (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 3)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)													
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	SO ₂	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆ [c]	
								P	A	P	A	P	A
Total Industrial Processes	65,155	75.4	91.77	781	7,689	2,622	1,175	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.723	1.534
A Mineral Products	63,926	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Cement Production	37,459	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Lime Production	14,223	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Limestone and Dolomite Use	7,810	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Soda Ash Production and Use	4,434	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Asphalt Roofing	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
6 Road Paving with Asphalt	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
7 Other	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
Glass Production	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
Concrete Pumice Stone	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
B Chemical Industry	IE	75.4	91.77	151	1,168	415	273	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Ammonia Production [b]	26,122	NE	NE	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Nitric Acid Production	NO	NE	45.27	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Adipic Acid Production	NO	NE	46.49	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Carbide Production	NE	0.8	NE	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Petrochemicals	NE	74.6	NE	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
C Metal Production	IE	NE	NE	93	2,237	66	501	NE	NE	[a]	[a]	0.460	0.460
1 Iron and Steel Production [b]	86,080	NE	NE	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Ferroalloys Production [b]	1,789	NE	NE	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Aluminum Production [b]	5,296	NE	NE	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	[a]	[a]	NE	NE
4 SF ₆ Used in Aluminum and Magnesium Foundries	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.460	0.460
5 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

[a] Emissions of HFCs and PFCs are documented by gas in Table 2 Sheet 3.

[b] CO₂ emissions from ammonia, iron & steel production, ferroalloys production, and aluminum production are included in this table for informational purposes only. These estimates are not included in the national total, however, in order to prevent double counting. Emissions from these sources are included under non-energy use of fossil fuels in the IPCC Energy Sector.

[c] Totals for actual SF₆ exclude emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture, which are provided in Table 2 Sheet 3.

"A" Actual emissions based on Tier 2 Approach.

"P" Potential emissions based on Tier 1 Approach.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 2 SECTORAL REPORT FOR INDUSTRIAL PROCESSES (1997)
(Sheet 2 of 3)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)													
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOc	SO ₂	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆	
								P	A	P	A	P	A
D Other Production	1,229	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1 Pulp and Paper	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
2 Food and Drink	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
3 Carbon Dioxide	1,229	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
E Production of Halocarbons & SF₆	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	NE	NE
1 By-product Emissions	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NA	[a]	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Fugitive Emissions	NE	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
F Consumption of Halocarbons & SF₆	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.263	1.074
1 Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	NE	NE
2 Foam Blowing	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	NE	NE
3 Fire Extinguishers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	NE	NE
4 Aerosols	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	NE	NE
5 Solvents	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	NE	NE
6 Electrical Transmission and Distribution	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.263	1.074
G Other	NA	NA	NA	538	4,285	2,141	401	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1 Storage and Transport	NA	NA	NA	6	24	1,249	2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
2 Other Industrial Processes	NA	NA	NA	382	601	416	387	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
3 Miscellaneous	NA	NA	NA	150	3,660	476	12	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

[a] Emissions of HFCs and PFCs are documented by gas in Table 2 Sheet 3.

"A" Actual emissions based on Tier 2 Approach.

"P" Potential emissions based on Tier 1 Approach.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 2 SECTORAL REPORT FOR INDUSTRIAL PROCESSES (1997)
(Sheet 3 of 3)

GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	Sectoral Report for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories											
	(MMTCE)		(Gg)									
	Aggre- gate	Aggre- gate	HFC- 23	HFC- 125	HFC- 134a	HFC- 143a	HFC- 236fa	HFC- 4310mee	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆	C ₄ F ₁₀	C ₆ F ₁₄
P	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Total HFCs and PFCs	NA	NA	2.613	3.572	17.960	0.427	0.175	1.479	1.434	0.143	NE	NE
C 3 Aluminum Production	NA	[b]	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	1.434	0.143	NE	NE
D 4 Semiconductor Manufacture [a]	NA	1.3	IE	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	IE	IE	NO	NO
E 1 By-Product Emissions (HCFC-22 Production)	NA	[b]	2.570	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
F Consumption of Halocarbons & SF₆	25.7	[b,c] 4.0	0.043	3.572	17.960	0.427	0.175	1.479	NE	NE	0.105	0.012
1 Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	-	-
2 Foam Blowing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	-	-
3 Fire Extinguishers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	-	-
4 Aerosols	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	-	-
5 Solvents	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	NE	NE	-	-

"A" Actual emissions based on Tier 2 Approach.

"P" Potential emissions based on Tier 1 Approach.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

[a] Includes gases such as HFC-23, CF₄, C₂F₆, SF₆, C₃F₈, and NF₃.

[b] Does not include emissions where estimates for individual gases were available for reporting.

[c] Includes HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, and PFC/PFPEs. PFC/PFPEs are a proxy for many diverse PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) that are employed in solvent applications. The GWP and atmospheric lifetime of this aggregate category is based upon that of C₆F₁₄.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 3 SECTORAL REPORT FOR SOLVENT AND OTHER PRODUCT USE (1997)
 (Sheet 1 of 1)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)				
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	NO _x	CO	NM VOC	SO ₂
Total Solvent and Other Product Use	3	6	5,882	1
A Paint Application	2	1	2,713	0
B Degreasing and Dry Cleaning	0	1	801	0
C Chemical Products, Manufacture and Processing	IE	IE	IE	IE
D Graphic Arts	1	0	373	0
D Other Industrial	0	3	51	0
D Nonindustrial	0	0	1,943	NA

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 4 SECTORAL REPORT FOR AGRICULTURE (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 2)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)					
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOG
Total Agriculture	9,448.6	913.56	37	843	NE
A Enteric Fermentation	5,962.6	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Cattle	5,691.6	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Buffalo	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Sheep	88.0	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Goats	60.9	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Camels and Llamas	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
6 Horses	11.5	NE	NE	NE	NE
7 Mules and Asses	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
8 Swine	110.7	NE	NE	NE	NE
9 Poultry	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
10 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
B Manure Management	2,970.5	35.83	NE	NE	NE
1 Cattle	1,023.0	15.40	NE	NE	NE
2 Buffalo	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Sheep	2.5	0.25	NE	NE	NE
4 Goats	0.8	0.05	NE	NE	NE
5 Camels and Llamas	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
6 Horses	31.3	0.61	NE	NE	NE
7 Mules and Asses	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
8 Swine	1,605.2	0.79	NE	NE	NE
9 Poultry	307.7	18.74	NE	NE	NE

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 4 SECTORAL REPORT FOR AGRICULTURE (1997)
(Sheet 2 of 2)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)					
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NM VOC
B Manure Management (cont...)					
10 Anaerobic	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE
11 Liquid Systems	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE
12 Solid Storage and Dry Lot	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE
13 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
C Rice Cultivation	475.4	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Irrigated	475.4	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Rainfed	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
3 Deep Water	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
4 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
D Agricultural Soils	NE	876.17	NE	NE	NE
E Prescribed Burning of Savannas	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
F Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	40.1	1.56	37	843	NE
1 Cereals	29.1	0.70	16	610	NE
2 Pulse	10.1	0.85	20	212	NE
3 Tuber and Root	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Sugar Cane	1.0	0.02	0	20	NE
5 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
G Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 5 SECTORAL REPORT FOR LAND-USE CHANGE AND FORESTRY (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 1)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)							
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂ Emissions	CO ₂ Removals	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	
Total Land-Use Change and Forestry	[a]	NA	[a] -764,683	NE	NE	NE	NE
A Changes in Forest and Other Woody Biomass Stocks	[a]	NA	[a] -764,683	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Tropical Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Temperate Forests		NA	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Boreal Forests		NA	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Grasslands/Tundra		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Other (General Forest Flux)		NA	-627,917	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Other (Forest Products Flux)		NA	-65,523	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Other (Landfill Carbon)		NA	-71,243	NE	NE	NE	NE
B Forest and Grassland Conversion	[a]	NE	[a] NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Tropical Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Temperate Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Boreal Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Grasslands/Tundra		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Other		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
C Abandonment of Managed Lands	[a]	NE	[a] NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
1 Tropical Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
2 Temperate Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Boreal Forests		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
4 Grasslands/Tundra		NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
5 Other		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
D CO₂ Emissions and Removals from Soil	[a]	NE	[a] NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
E Other		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

[a] Please do not provide an estimate of both CO₂ emissions and CO₂ removals. You should estimate "net" emissions of CO₂ and place a single number in either the CO₂ emissions or CO₂ removals column, as appropriate. Please note that for the purposes of reporting, the signs for uptake are always (-) and for emissions (+).

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 6 SECTORAL REPORT FOR WASTE (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 1)

SECTORAL REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)							
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂ [a]	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	SO ₂
Total Waste	IE	11,807.7	28.19	94	1,127	407	45
A Solid Waste Disposal on Land	IE	11,646.4	NE	1	2	21	0
1 Managed Waste Disposal on Land	IE	11,646.4	NE	1	2	21	0
2 Unmanaged Waste Disposal Sites	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
3 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
B Wastewater Handling	NE	161.3	[b]	0	0	61	1
1 Industrial Wastewater	NE	NE	NE	0	0	12	0
2 Domestic and Commercial Wastewater	NE	161.3	[b]	0	0	49	0
3 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
C Waste Incineration	IE	NE	0.83	92	1,124	246	44
D Other	NE	NE	27.36	1	1	79	0
Transport, Storage, and Disposal Facility	NE	NE	NE	0	0	43	0
Other Waste	NE	NE	NE	1	1	36	0
Human sewage	NE	IE	27.36	NE	NE	NE	NE

[a] Note that CO₂ from waste disposal and incineration should only be included if it stems from non-biological or inorganic waste sources.

[b] Emissions from the human sewage portion of this source category is included under section D.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 7A SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 3)

SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)														
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂ Emissions	CO ₂ Removals	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	SO ₂	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆	
									P	A	P	A	P	A
Total National Emissions and Removals	5,455,553	-764,683	31,356.8	1,289.77	21,267	75,158	17,129	18,478	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.723	1.534
1 Energy	5,390,398	NA	10,025.1	256.24	20,352	65,493	8,217	17,258						
A Fuel Combustion (Sectoral Approach)	5,375,164	NA	633.4	256.24	20,248	65,163	7,730	16,909						
1 Energy Industries	1,951,908	NA	24.4	26.79	5,605	368	46	11,868						
2 Manufacturing Industries & Construction	1,125,447	NA	151.4	17.92	2,967	1,007	197	3,053						
3 Transport	1,634,556	NA	242.4	207.40	10,519	60,794	6,949	1,252						
4 Other Sectors	616,927	NA	215.2	4.13	1,157	2,994	538	737						
5 Other (U.S. Territories)	46,326	NA	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels	15,235	NA	9,391.7		104	330	488	349						
1 Solid Fuels	NE	NA	3,274.1											
2 Oil and Natural Gas	15,235	NA	6,117.6		104	330	488	349						
2 Industrial Processes	65,155	NA	75.4	91.77	781	7,689	2,622	1,175	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.723	1.534
A Mineral Products	63,926	NA	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
B Chemical Industry	IE	NA	75.4	91.77	151	1,168	415	273	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
C Metal Production	IE	NA	NE	NE	93	2,237	66	501	NE	NE	[a]	[a]	0.460	0.460
D Other Production	1,229	NA	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
E Production of Halocarbons and SF ₆	NE	NA	NE	NE	IE	IE	IE	IE	[a]	[a]	NE	NE	NE	NE
F Consumption of Halocarbons and SF ₆	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.263	1.074
G Storage/Other/Miscellaneous	NA	NA	NA	NA	538	4,285	2,141	401	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

[a] Emissions of HFCs and PFCs are documented by gas in Table 2 Sheet 3.

"A" Actual emissions based on Tier 2 Approach.

"P" Potential emissions based on Tier 1 Approach.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 7A SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 2 of 3)

SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)														
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂ Emissions	CO ₂ Removals	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	SO ₂	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆	
									P	A	P	A	P	A
3 Solvent and Other Product Use	NE	NE	NE	NE	3	6	5,882	1						
4 Agriculture	NE	NE	9,448.6	913.56	37	843	NE	NE						
A Enteric Fermentation	NE	NE	5,962.6	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
B Manure Management	NE	NE	2,970.5	35.83	NE	NE	NE	NE						
C Rice Cultivation	NE	NE	475.4	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
D Agricultural Soils	[a] NE	[a] NE	NE	876.17	NE	NE	NE	NE						
E Prescribed Burning of Savannas	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO						
F Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	NE	NE	40.1	1.56	37	843	NE	NE						
G Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
5 Land-Use Change & Forestry	[a] NA	[a] -764,683	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
A Changes in Forest and Other Woody Biomass Stocks	[a] NA	[a] -764,683	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
B Forest and Grassland Conversion	[a] NE	[a] NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
C Abandonment of Managed Lands	[a] NE	[a] NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
D CO ₂ Emissions and Removals from Soil	[a] NE	[a] NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
E Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NE						
6 Waste	IE	IE	11,807.7	28.19	94	1,127	407	45						
A Solid Waste Disposal on Land	IE	IE	11,646.4	NE	1	2	21	0						
B Wastewater Handling	NE	NE	161.3	[b]	0	0	61	1						
C Waste Incineration	IE	NE	NE	0.83	92	1,124	246	44						
D Other	NE	NE	NE	27.36	1	1	79	0						
7 Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						

[a] Please do not provide an estimate of both CO₂ emissions and CO₂ removals. You should estimate "net" emissions of CO₂ and place a single number in either the CO₂ emissions or CO₂ removals column, as appropriate. Please note that for the purposes of reporting, the signs for uptake are always (-) and for emissions (+).

[b] Emissions from the human sewage portion of this source category is included under section 6.D.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 7A SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 3 of 3)

SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)														
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂ Emissions	CO ₂ Removals	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	SO ₂	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆	
									P	A	P	A	P	A
Memo Items [a]														
International Bunkers	97,542	NE	1.8	2.76	1,448	111	46	NE						
Aviation	50,974	NE	1.4	1.62	202	84	13	NE						
Marine	46,568	NE	0.4	1.15	1,246	27	33	NE						
CO₂ Emissions from Biomass	216,561													

[a] Not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 7B SHORT SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 1)

SHORT SUMMARY REPORT FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (Gg)															
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES		CO ₂ Emissions	CO ₂ Removals	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	SO ₂	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆	
										P	A	P	A	P	A
Total National Emissions and Removals		5,455,553	-764,683	31,356.8	1,289.77	21,267	75,158	17,129	18,478	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.723	1.534
1 Energy	Reference Approach [b]	5,415,400													
	Sectoral Approach [b]	5,390,398	NA	10,025.1	256.24	20,352	65,493	8,217	17,258						
A Fuel Combustion		5,375,164	NA	633.4	256.24	20,248	65,163	7,730	16,909						
B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels		15,235	NA	9,391.7		104	330	488	349						
2 Industrial Processes		65,155	NA	75.4	91.77	781	7,689	2,622	1,175	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	2.723	1.534
3 Solvent and Other Product Use		NE	NE	NE	NE	3	6	5,882	1						
4 Agriculture		NE	NE	9,448.6	913.56	37	843	NE	NE						
5 Land-Use Change & Forestry		[c] NA	[c] -764,683	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE						
6 Waste		IE	IE	11,807.7	28.19	94	1,127	407	45						
7 Other		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
Memo Items:															
International Bunkers		97,542	NE	1.8	2.76	1,448	111	46	NE						
Aviation		50,974	NE	1.4	1.62	202	84	13	NE						
Marine		46,568	NE	0.4	1.15	1,246	27	33	NE						
CO₂ Emissions from Biomass		216,561													

[a] Emissions of HFCs and PFCs are documented by gas in Table 2 Sheet 3.

[b] For verification purposes, countries are asked to report the results of their calculations using the Reference Approach and explain any differences with the Sectoral Approach. Do not include the results of both the Reference Approach and the Sectoral Approach in national totals.

[c] Please do not provide an estimate of both CO₂ emissions and CO₂ removals. You should estimate "net" emissions of CO₂ and place a single number in either the CO₂ emissions or CO₂ removals column, as appropriate. Please note that for the purposes of reporting, the signs for uptake are always (-) and for emissions (+).

Note: Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding.

- Value is included in an aggregate figure, but not estimated separately.

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

TABLE 8A OVERVIEW TABLE FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 1 of 6)

OVERVIEW TABLE														
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂		CH ₄		N ₂ O		NO _x		CO		NMVOC		SO ₂	
	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality
Total National Emissions and Removals														
1 Energy														
A Fuel Combustion Activities														
Reference Approach	ALL	H												
Sectoral Approach	ALL	H	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M
1 Energy Industries	ALL	H	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M
2 Manufacturing Industries & Construction	ALL	H	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M
3 Transport	ALL	H	ALL	M	PART	L	ALL	H	ALL	H	ALL	L	ALL	M
4 Other Sectors	ALL	H	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	L	IE	
5 Other (U.S. Territories)	ALL	M	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels														
1 Solid Fuels	NE		PART [b]	M	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
2 Oil and Natural Gas	PART [a]	M	ALL	L	NE		ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M
2 Industrial Processes														
A Mineral Products	ALL	H	NE		NE		IE		IE		IE		IE	
B Chemical Industry	ALL	M	PART [c]	M	ALL	H	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M
C Metal Production	IE		NE		NE		ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M
D Other Production	NA		NA		NA		IE		IE		IE		IE	
E Production of Halocarbons & SF ₆	NO		NO		NO		IE		IE		IE		IE	

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

PART (Partly estimated)

ALL (Full estimate of all possible sources)

[a] Estimate excludes geologic carbon dioxide deposits released during petroleum and natural gas production.

[b] Does not include abandoned coal mines.

[c] Not all potential sources were included. See sources excluded annex.

[d] Only HCFC-22 production included.

Quality:

H = High Confidence in Estimation

M = Medium Confidence in Estimation

L = Low Confidence in Estimation

Disaggregation:

1 = Total emissions estimated

2 = Sectoral split

3 = Subsectoral split

Documentation:

H = High (all background information included)

M = Medium (some background information included)

L = Low (only emission estimates included)

TABLE 8A OVERVIEW TABLE FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 2 of 6)

OVERVIEW TABLE								
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆		Documen- tation	Disaggre- gation
	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality		
Total National Emissions and Removals								
1 Energy								
A Fuel Combustion Activities								
Reference Approach							H	1
Sectoral Approach	NO		NO		NO		H	3
1 Energy Industries	NO		NO		NO		H	1
2 Manufacturing Industries & Construction	NO		NO		NO		H	1
3 Transport	NO		NO		NO		H	2
4 Other Sectors	NO		NO		NO		H	1
5 Other (U.S. Territories)	NO		NO		NO		H	1
B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels								
1 Solid Fuels	NO		NO		NO		H	3
2 Oil and Natural Gas	NO		NO		NO		H	3
2 Industrial Processes								
A Mineral Products	NE		NE		NE		H	3
B Chemical Industry	NE		NE		NE		H	3
C Metal Production	NE		ALL	H	ALL	M	M	3
D Other Production	NA		NA		NA			
E Production of Halocarbons & SF ₆	PART [d]	H	NE		NE		M	2

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

PART (Partly estimated)

ALL (Full estimate of all possible sources)

[a] Estimate excludes geologic carbon dioxide deposits released during petroleum and natural gas production.

[b] Does not include abandoned coal mines.

[c] Not all potential sources were included. See sources excluded annex.

[d] Only HCFC-22 production included.

Quality:

H = High Confidence in Estimation

M = Medium Confidence in Estimation

L = Low Confidence in Estimation

Disaggregation:

1 = Total emissions estimated

2 = Sectoral split

3 = Subsectoral split

Documentation:

H = High (all background information included)

M = Medium (some background information included)

L = Low (only emission estimates included)

TABLE 8A OVERVIEW TABLE FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 3 of 6)

OVERVIEW TABLE														
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂		CH ₄		N ₂ O		NO _x		CO		NMVOC		SO ₂	
	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality
Industrial Processes (cont...)														
F Consumption of Halocarbons & SF ₆														
Potential [a]	NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA	
Actual [b]	NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA	
G Storage/Other/Miscellaneous	NA		NA		NA		ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	L	ALL	M
3 Solvent and Other Product Use	NE		NE		NE		ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M
4 Agriculture														
A Enteric Fermentation	NE		ALL	M	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
B Manure Management	NE		ALL	M	ALL	L	NE		NE		NE		NE	
C Rice Cultivation	NE		ALL	L	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
D Agricultural Soils	NE		NE		ALL	L	NE		NE		NE		NE	
E Prescribed Burning of Savannas	NO		NO		NO		NO		NO		NO		NO	
F Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	NE		ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	NE		NE	
G Other	NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA	
5 Land-Use Change & Forestry														
A Changes in Forest and Other Woody Biomass Stocks	PART [c]	M	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
B Forest and Grassland Conversion	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

PART (Partly estimated)

ALL (Full estimate of all possible sources)

[a] Potential emissions based on Tier 1 Approach.

[b] Actual emissions based on Tier 2 Approach.

[c] Estimate does not include Alaska, Hawaii, or U.S. Territories.

Quality:

H = High Confidence in Estimation

M = Medium Confidence in Estimation

L = Low Confidence in Estimation

Disaggregation:

1 = Total emissions estimated

2 = Sectoral split

3 = Subsectoral split

Documentation:

H = High (all background information included)

M = Medium (some background information included)

L = Low (only emission estimates included)

TABLE 8A OVERVIEW TABLE FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 4 of 6)

OVERVIEW TABLE									
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆		Documen- tation	Disaggre- gation	
	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality			
Industrial Processes (cont...)									
F Consumption of Halocarbons & SF ₆									
Potential [a]	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M	M		2
Actual [b]	ALL	M	ALL	M	ALL	M	M		2
G Storage/Other/Miscellaneous	NA		NA		NA		M		2
3 Solvent and Other Product Use									
	NA		NA		NA		M		3
4 Agriculture									
A Enteric Fermentation	NA		NA		NA		H		3
B Manure Management	NA		NA		NA		H		3
C Rice Cultivation	NA		NA		NA		H		3
D Agricultural Soils	NA		NA		NA		H		3
E Prescribed Burning of Savannas	NA		NA		NA				
F Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	NA		NO		NO		H		3
G Other	NA		NA		NA				
5 Land-Use Change & Forestry									
A Changes in Forest and Other Woody Biomass Stocks	NA		NA		NA		M		2
B Forest and Grassland Conversion	NA		NA		NA				

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

PART (Partly estimated)

ALL (Full estimate of all possible sources)

[a] Potential emissions based on Tier 1 Approach.

[b] Actual emissions based on Tier 2 Approach.

[c] Estimate does not include Alaska, Hawaii, or U.S. Territories.

Quality:

H = High Confidence in Estimation

M = Medium Confidence in Estimation

L = Low Confidence in Estimation

Disaggregation:

1 = Total emissions estimated

2 = Sectoral split

3 = Subsectoral split

Documentation:

H = High (all background information included)

M = Medium (some background information included)

L = Low (only emission estimates included)

TABLE 8A OVERVIEW TABLE FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 5 of 6)

OVERVIEW TABLE														
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	CO ₂		CH ₄		N ₂ O		NO _x		CO		NMVOC		SO ₂	
	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality
5 Land-Use Change & Forestry (cont....)														
C Abandonment of Managed Lands	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
D CO ₂ Emissions and Removals from Soil	PART [a]	L	NE		NE		NE		NE		NE		NE	
E Other	NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA	
6 Waste														
A Solid Waste Disposal on Land	IE		ALL	M	NE		ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L
B Wastewater Handling	NE		PART [b]	L	PART [c]	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L
C Waste Incineration	IE		NE		ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L
D Other	NE		NE		ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L	ALL	L
7 Other	NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA		NA	
Memo Items:														
International Bunkers														
Aviation	ALL	M	NE		NE		IE		IE		IE		IE	
Marine	ALL	M	NE		NE		IE		IE		IE		IE	
CO₂ Emissions from Biomass	ALL	M												

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

PART (Partly estimated)

ALL (Full estimate of all possible sources)

[a] Non-forest soils are not included in this estimate.

[b] Estimate does not include emissions from industrial wastewater.

[c] Includes emissions from human sewage only

Quality:

H = High Confidence in Estimation

M = Medium Confidence in Estimation

L = Low Confidence in Estimation

Disaggregation:

1 = Total emissions estimated

2 = Sectoral split

3 = Subsectoral split

Documentation:

H = High (all background information included)

M = Medium (some background information included)

L = Low (only emission estimates included)

TABLE 8A OVERVIEW TABLE FOR NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORIES (1997)
(Sheet 6 of 6)

OVERVIEW TABLE								
GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES	HFCs		PFCs		SF ₆		Documen- tation	Disaggre- gation
	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality	Estimate	Quality		
5 Land-Use Change & Forestry (cont....)								
C Abandonment of Managed Lands	NA		NA		NA			
D CO ₂ Emissions and Removals from Soil	NA		NA		NA		H	2
E Other	NA		NA		NA			
6 Waste								
A Solid Waste Disposal on Land	NO		NO		NO		H	2
B Wastewater Handling	NO		NO		NO		H	2
C Waste Incineration	NO		NO		NO		H	1
D Other	NO		NO		NO		H	1
7 Other	NA		NA		NA			
Memo Items:								
International Bunkers								
Aviation	NO		NO		NO		H	1
Marine	NO		NO		NO		H	1
CO₂ Emissions from Biomass							H	2

"0" (Estimate for source is insignificant or close to zero)

NA (Not applicable to source category)

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring in the United States)

IE (Estimated but included elsewhere)

PART (Partly estimated)

ALL (Full estimate of all possible sources)

[a] Non-forest soils are not included in this estimate.

[b] Estimate does not include emissions from industrial wastewater.

[c] Includes emissions from human sewage only

Quality:

H = High Confidence in Estimation

M = Medium Confidence in Estimation

L = Low Confidence in Estimation

Disaggregation:

1 = Total emissions estimated

2 = Sectoral split

3 = Subsectoral split

Documentation:

H = High (all background information included)

M = Medium (some background information included)

L = Low (only emission estimates included)

Annex O

IPCC Reference Approach for Estimating CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion

It is possible to estimate carbon emissions from fossil fuel consumption using alternative methodologies and different data sources than those described in Annex A. For example, the IPCC requires countries in addition to their “bottom-up” sectoral methodology to complete a “top-down” Reference Approach for estimating carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Section 1.3 of the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reporting Instructions* states, “If a detailed, Sectoral Approach for energy has been used for the estimation of CO₂ from fuel combustion you are still asked to complete...the Reference Approach...for verification purposes” (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). This reference method estimates fossil fuel consumption by adjusting national aggregate fuel production data for imports, exports, and stock changes rather than relying on end-user consumption surveys. The basic principle is that once carbon-based fuels are brought into a national economy, they are either saved in some way (e.g., stored in products, kept in fuel stocks, or left unoxidized in ash) or combusted, and therefore the carbon in them is oxidized and released into the atmosphere. Accounting for actual consumption of fuels at the sectoral or sub-national level is not required. The following discussion provides the detailed calculations for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion from the United States using the IPCC-recommended Reference Approach.

Step 1: Collect and Assemble Data in Proper Format

To ensure the comparability of national inventories, the IPCC has recommended that countries report energy data using the International Energy Agency (IEA) reporting convention. National energy statistics were collected in physical units from several DOE/EIA documents in order to obtain the necessary data on production, imports, exports, and stock changes.¹⁷ These data are presented in Table O-1.

The carbon content of fuel varies with the fuel's heat content. Therefore, for an accurate estimation of CO₂ emissions, fuel statistics should be provided on an energy content basis (e.g., BTU's or joules). Because detailed fuel production statistics are typically provided in physical units (as in Table O-1), they were converted to units of energy before carbon emissions were calculated. Fuel statistics were converted to their energy equivalents by using conversion factors provided by DOE/EIA. These factors and their data sources are displayed in Table O-2. The resulting fuel data are provided in Table O-3.

Step 2: Estimate Apparent Fuel Consumption

The next step of the IPCC Reference Approach is to estimate “apparent consumption” of fuels within the country. This requires a balance of primary fuels produced, plus imports, minus exports, and adjusting for stock changes. In this way, carbon enters an economy through energy production and imports (and decreases in fuel stocks) and is transferred out of the country through exports (and increases in fuel stocks). Thus, apparent consumption of primary fuels (including crude oil, natural gas liquids, anthracite, bituminous, subbituminous and lignite coal, and natural gas) can be calculated as follows:

$$\textit{Production} + \textit{Imports} - \textit{Exports} - \textit{Stock Change}$$

¹⁷ For the United States, national aggregate energy statistics typically exclude data on the U.S. territories. As a result, national statistics were adjusted to include U.S. territories data. The territories include Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Guam, American Samoa, Wake Island, and U.S. Pacific Islands. Consumption data were used for the territories because they are thought to be more reliable than production, import, export, and stock change data.

Flows of secondary fuels (e.g., gasoline, residual fuel, coke) should be added to primary apparent consumption. The production of secondary fuels, however, should be ignored in the calculations of apparent consumption since the carbon contained in these fuels is already accounted for in the supply of primary fuels from which they were derived (e.g., the estimate for apparent consumption of crude oil already contains the carbon from which gasoline would be refined). Flows of secondary fuels should therefore be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Imports} - \text{Exports} - \text{Stock Change}$$

Note that this calculation can result in negative numbers for apparent consumption. This is a perfectly acceptable result since it merely indicates a net export or stock increase in the country of that fuel when domestic production is not considered.

The IPCC Reference Approach calls for estimating apparent fuel consumption before converting to a common energy unit. However, certain primary fuels in the United States (e.g., natural gas and steam coal) have separate conversion factors for production, imports, exports, and stock changes. In these cases, it is not appropriate to multiply apparent consumption by a single conversion factor since each of its components have different heat contents. Therefore, United States fuel statistics were converted to their heat equivalents before estimating apparent consumption. The energy value of bunker fuels used for international transport activities was subtracted before computing energy totals.¹⁸ Results are provided in Table O-3.

Step 3: Estimate Carbon Emissions

Once apparent consumption is estimated, the remaining calculations are virtually identical to those for the “bottom-up” Sectoral Approach (see Annex A). That is:

- Potential carbon emissions were estimated using fuel-specific carbon coefficients (see Table O-4).¹⁹
- The carbon sequestered in non-energy uses of fossil fuels (e.g., plastics or asphalt) was then estimated and subtracted from the total amount of carbon (see Table O-5).
- Finally, to obtain actual carbon emissions, net carbon emissions were adjusted for any carbon that remained unoxidized as a result of incomplete combustion (e.g., carbon contained in ash or soot).²⁰

Step 4: Convert to CO₂ Emissions

Because the IPCC reporting guidelines recommend that countries report greenhouse gas emissions on a full molecular weight basis, the final step in estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel consumption was converting from units of carbon to units of CO₂. Actual carbon emissions were multiplied by the molecular-to-atomic weight ratio of CO₂ to carbon (44/12) to obtain total carbon dioxide emitted from fossil fuel combustion in teragrams (Tg). The results are contained in Table O-6.

¹⁸ Bunker fuels refer to quantities of fuels used for international transportation. The IPCC methodology accounts for these fuels as part of the energy balance of the country in which they were delivered to end-users. Carbon dioxide emissions from the combustion of these fuels were estimated separately and were not included in U.S. national totals. This is done to ensure that all fuel is accounted for in the methodology and so that the IPCC is able to prepare global emission estimates.

¹⁹ Carbon coefficients from EIA were used wherever possible. Because EIA did not provide coefficients for coal, the IPCC-recommended emission factors were used in the top-down calculations for these fuels. See notes in Table O-4 for more specific source information.

²⁰ For the portion of carbon that is unoxidized during coal combustion, the IPCC suggests a global average value of 2 percent. However, because combustion technologies in the United States are more efficient, the United States inventory uses 1 percent in its calculations for petroleum and coal and 0.5 percent for natural gas.

Comparison Between Sectoral and Reference Approaches

These two alternative approaches can both produce reliable estimates that are comparable within a few percent. The major difference between methodologies employed by each approach lies in the energy data used to derive carbon emissions (i.e., the actual reported consumption for the Sectoral Approach versus apparent consumption derived for the Reference Approach). In theory, both approaches should yield identical results. In practice, however, slight discrepancies occur. For the United States, these differences are discussed below.

Differences in Total Amount of Energy Consumed

Table O-7 and Table O-9²¹ summarize the differences between the Reference and Sectoral approaches in estimating total energy consumption in the United States. Although theoretically the two methods should arrive at the same estimate for U.S. energy consumption, the Reference Approach provides an energy total that is 0.4 percent lower than the Sectoral Approach for 1997. The greatest difference lies in the higher estimate of petroleum consumption with the Sectoral Approach (1.0 percent).

There are several potential sources for the discrepancies in consumption estimates:

- *Product Definitions.* The fuel categories in the Reference Approach are different from those used in the Sectoral Approach, particularly for petroleum. For example, the Reference Approach estimates apparent consumption for crude oil. Crude oil is not typically consumed directly, but refined into other products. As a result, the United States does not focus on estimating the energy content of crude oil, but rather estimating the energy content of the various products resulting from crude oil refining. The United States does not believe that estimating apparent consumption for crude oil, and the resulting energy content of the crude oil, is the most reliable method for the United States to estimate its energy consumption. Other differences in product definitions include using sector-specific coal statistics in the Sectoral Approach (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial coking, industrial other, and transportation coal), while the Reference Approach characterizes coal by rank (i.e. anthracite, bituminous, etc.). Also, the liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) statistics used in the bottom-up calculations are actually a composite category composed of natural gas liquids (NGL) and LPG.
- *Heat Equivalents.* It can be difficult to obtain heat equivalents for certain fuel types, particularly for categories such as "crude oil" where the key statistics are derived from thousands of producers in the United States and abroad. For heat equivalents by coal rank, it was necessary to refer back to EIA's *State Energy Data Report 1992* (1994) because this information is no longer published.
- *Possible inconsistencies in U.S. Energy Data.* The United States has not focused its energy data collection efforts on obtaining the type of aggregated information used in the Reference Approach. Rather, the United States believes that its emphasis on collection of detailed energy consumption data is a more accurate methodology for the United States to obtain reliable energy data. Therefore, top-down statistics used in the Reference Approach may not be as accurately collected as bottom-up statistics applied to the Sectoral Approach.
- *Balancing Item.* The Reference Approach uses *apparent* consumption estimates while the Sectoral Approach uses *reported* consumption estimates. While these numbers should be equal, there always seems to be a slight difference that is often accounted for in energy statistics as a "balancing item."

Differences in Estimated CO₂ Emissions

Given these differences in energy consumption data, the next step for each methodology involved estimating emissions of CO₂. Table O-8 summarizes the differences between the two methods in estimated carbon emissions for 1997. Although complete data and calculations are not presented, comparison tables are also presented for 1996 emissions in Table O-10.

As shown previously, the Sectoral Approach resulted in a 0.4 percent higher estimate of energy consumption in the United States than the Reference Approach, but the resulting emissions estimate for the Reference Approach is 0.8 percent higher. While both methods' estimates of natural gas emissions are almost exactly the same, coal and

²¹ Although complete energy consumption data and calculations are not presented, comparison tables are also presented for 1996.

petroleum emission estimates from the Reference Approach are higher than the Sectoral Approach. Potential reasons for these patterns may include:

- *Product Definitions.* Coal data is aggregated differently in each methodology, as noted above, with United States coal data typically collected in the format used for the Sectoral Approach. This results in more accurate estimates than in the Reference Approach. Also, the Reference Approach relies on a "crude oil" category for determining petroleum-related emissions. Given the many sources of crude oil in the United States, it is not an easy matter to track potential differences in carbon content between different sources of crude, particularly since information on the carbon content of crude oil is not regularly collected.
- *Carbon Coefficients.* The Reference Approach relies on several default carbon coefficients provided by IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), while the Sectoral Approach uses category-specific coefficients that are likely to be more accurate. Also, as noted above, the carbon coefficient for crude oil is not an easy value to obtain given the many sources and grades of crude oil consumed in the United States.

Although the two approaches produce similar results, the United States believes that the "bottom-up" Sectoral Approach provides a more accurate assessment of CO₂ emissions at the fuel level. This improvement in accuracy is largely a result of the data collection techniques used in the United States, where there has been more emphasis on obtaining the detailed products-based information used in the Sectoral Approach than obtaining the aggregated energy flow data used in the Reference Approach. The United States believes that it is valuable to understand both methods.

References

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EIA (1998b) *Coal Industry Annual – 1997*, DOE/EIA 0584(97)-annual, Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy, Washington, DC.

EIA (1998c) *Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 1997*, DOE/EIA 0573(97)-annual, Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy, Washington, DC.

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EIA (1994) *State Energy Data Report 1992*, DOE/EIA 0214(92)-annual, Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy, Washington, DC.

IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*, Paris: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, United Nations Environment Programme, Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, International Energy Agency.

Table O-1: 1997 U.S. Energy Statistics (physical units)

Fuel Category (Units)	Fuel Type	Production	Imports	Exports	Stock Change	Bunkers	U.S. Territories
Solid Fuels (1000 Short Tons)	Anthracite Coal	4,692	[1]	[1]	[1]		
	Bituminous Coal	653,828	[1]	[1]	[1]		
	Sub-bituminous Coal	345,071	[1]	[1]	[1]		
	Lignite	86,341	[1]	[1]	[1]		
	Coke		1,565	832	(29)		
	Unspecified Coal		7,487	83,545	(10,817)		480
Gas Fuels (Million Cubic Feet)	Natural Gas			157,463	(26,906)		
		19,152,427	2,972,368				
Liquid Fuels (Thousand Barrels)	Crude Oil	2,354,831		39,308	18,450		
			3,002,299				
	Nat Gas Liquids and LRGs	663,266	74,831	20,882	2,617		2,791
	Other Liquids	78,471	224,060	9,265	5,576		
	Motor Gasoline		112,837	49,878	9,367		27,547
	Aviation Gasoline		41	-	(575)		
	Kerosene		570	138	273		12,949
	Jet Fuel		33,109	12,763	4,178	128,123	
	Distillate Fuel		83,102	55,507	11,698	13,637	19,371
	Residual Fuel		70,829	43,782	(5,458)	83,221	27,912
	Naptha for petrochemical feedstocks		18,681	-	35		
	Petroleum Coke			386	111,615		
	Other Oil for petrochemical feedstocks			69,086	-	772	
	Special Napthas			2,709	7,849	281	
	Lubricants			4,026	11,275	215	
	Waxes			441	993	(80)	
Asphalt/Road Oil			11,862	2,879	1,619		
Still Gas			-	-	-		
Misc. Products			101	125	618		20,005

[1] Included in Unspecified Coal

Data Sources: Solid Fuels - EIA Coal Industry Annual 1997; Gas Fuels - EIA Annual Energy Review 1997; Liquid Fuels - EIA Petroleum Supply Annual 1997

Table O-2: Conversion Factors to Energy Units (heat equivalents)

Fuel Category (Units)	Fuel Type	Production	Imports	Exports	Stock		U.S. Territories	
					Change	Bunkers		
Solid Fuels (Million Btu/Short Ton)	Anthracite Coal	22.573						
	Bituminous Coal	23.89						
	Sub-bituminous Coal	17.14						
	Lignite	12.866						
	Coke		24.8	24.8	24.8			
	Unspecified			25.000	26.174	21.287		21.287
Natural Gas (BTU/Cubic Foot)		1,027	1,022	1,011	1,027			
Liquid Fuels (Million Btu/Barrel)	Crude Oil	5.800	5.935	5.800	5.800	5.800	5.800	
	Nat Gas Liquids and LRGs	3.777	3.777	3.777	3.777	3.777	3.777	
	Other Liquids	5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825	
	Motor Gasoline		5.253	5.253	5.253	5.253	5.253	
	Aviation Gasoline		5.048	5.048	5.048	5.048	5.048	
	Kerosene		5.67	5.67	5.67	5.67	5.67	
	Jet Fuel		5.67	5.67	5.67	5.67	5.67	
	Distillate Fuel		5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825	
	Residual Oil		6.287	6.287	6.287	6.287	6.287	
	Naptha for petrochemical feedstocks		5.248	5.248	5.248	5.248	5.248	
	Petroleum Coke			6.024	6.024	6.024	6.024	6.024
	Other Oil for petrochemical feedstocks			5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825	5.825
	Special Napthas			5.248	5.248	5.248	5.248	5.248
	Lubricants			6.065	6.065	6.065	6.065	6.065
	Waxes			5.537	5.537	5.537	5.537	5.537
Asphalt/Road Oil			6.636	6.636	6.636	6.636	6.636	
Still Gas			6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	
Misc. Products			5.796	5.796	5.796	5.796	5.796	

Data Sources: Coal and lignite production - EIA State Energy Data Report 1992; Coke - EIA Monthly Energy Review, November 1998; Unspecified Solid Fuels - EIA Monthly Energy Review, November 1998; Natural Gas - EIA Monthly Energy Review, November 1998; Crude Oil - EIA Monthly Energy Review, November 1998; Natural Gas Liquids and LRGs - EIA Petroleum Supply Annual 1997; all other Liquid Fuels - EIA Monthly Energy Review, November 1998

Table O-3: 1997 Apparent Consumption of Fossil Fuels (TBtu)

Fuel Category	Fuel Type	Production	Imports	Exports	Stock Change	Bunkers	U.S. Territories	Apparent Consumption	
Solid Fuels	Anthracite Coal	105.9					-	105.9	
	Bituminous Coal	15,620.0					-	15,620.0	
	Sub-bituminous Coal	5,914.5					-	5,914.5	
	Lignite	1,110.9					-	1,110.9	
	Coke	-	38.8	20.6	(0.7)		-	18.9	
	Unspecified	-	187.2	2,186.7	(230.3)		10.2	(1,759.1)	
Gas Fuels	Natural Gas	19,669.5	3,037.8	159.2	(27.6)		-	22,575.7	
Liquid Fuels	Crude Oil	13,658.0	17,818.6	228.0	107.0	-	-	31,141.7	
	Nat Gas Liquids and LRGs	2,505.2	282.6	78.9	9.9	-	10.5	2,709.6	
	Other Liquids	457.1	1,305.1	54.0	32.5	-	-	1,675.8	
	Motor Gasoline	-	592.7	262.0	49.2	-	144.7	426.2	
	Aviation Gasoline	-	0.2	-	(2.9)	-	-	3.1	
	Kerosene	-	3.2	0.8	1.5	-	73.4	74.3	
	Jet Fuel	-	187.7	72.4	23.7	726.5	-	(634.8)	
	Distillate Fuel	-	484.1	323.3	68.1	79.4	112.8	126.0	
	Residual Oil	-	445.3	275.3	(34.3)	523.2	175.5	(143.4)	
	Naptha for petrochemical feedstocks	-	98.0	-	0.2	-	-	97.9	
	Petroleum Coke	-	2.3	672.4	16.6	-	-	(686.7)	
	Other Oil for petrochemical feedstocks	-	402.4	-	4.5	-	-	397.9	
	Special Napthas	-	14.2	41.2	1.5	-	-	(28.4)	
	Lubricants	-	24.4	68.4	1.3	-	-	(45.3)	
	Waxes	-	2.4	5.5	(0.4)	-	-	(2.6)	
	Asphalt/Road Oil	-	78.7	19.1	10.7	-	-	48.9	
	Still Gas	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	
	Misc. Products	-	0.6	0.7	3.6	-	115.9	112.2	
	Total		59,041.1	25,006.6	4,468.4	34.1	988.2	643.2	78,859.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-4: 1997 Potential Carbon Emissions

Fuel Category	Fuel Type	Apparent Consumption (QBtu)	Carbon Coefficients (MMTCE/QBtu)	Potential Carbon Emissions (MMTCE)
Solid Fuels	Anthracite Coal	0.106	26.86	2.8
	Bituminous Coal	15.620	25.86	403.9
	Sub-bituminous Coal	5.915	26.26	155.3
	Lignite	1.111	27.66	30.7
	Coke	0.019	25.56	0.5
	Unspecified	(1.759)	25.74	(45.3)
Gas Fuels	Natural Gas	22.576	14.47	326.7
Liquid Fuels	Crude Oil	31.142	20.23	630.0
	Nat Gas Liquids and LRGs	2.710	16.99	46.0
	Other Liquids	1.676	20.23	33.9
	Motor Gasoline	0.426	19.38	8.3
	Aviation Gasoline	0.003	18.87	0.1
	Kerosene	0.074	19.72	1.5
	Jet Fuel	(0.635)	19.33	(12.3)
	Distillate Fuel	0.126	19.95	2.5
	Residual Oil	(0.143)	21.49	(3.1)
	Naptha for petrochemical feedstocks	0.098	18.14	1.8
	Petroleum Coke	(0.687)	27.85	(19.1)
	Other Oil for petrochemical feedstocks	0.398	19.95	7.9
	Special Napthas	(0.028)	19.86	(0.6)
	Lubricants	(0.045)	20.24	(0.9)
	Waxes	(0.003)	19.81	(0.1)
Asphalt/Road Oil	0.049	20.62	1.0	
Still Gas	0.000	17.51	0.0	
Misc. Products	0.112	19.81	2.2	
Total				1,573.9

Data Sources: Coal and Lignite - *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines Reference Manual*, Table 1-1; Coke - *EIA Monthly Energy Review*, November 1998 Table C1; Unspecified Solid Fuels - *EIA Monthly Energy Review*, November 1998 Table C1 (U.S. Average); Natural Gas and Liquid Fuels - *EIA Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 1997*.
 Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-5: 1997 Non-Energy Carbon Stored in Products

Fuel Type	Consumption for Non-Energy Use (TBtu)	Carbon Coefficients (MMTCE/QBtu)	Carbon Content (MMTCE)	Fraction Sequestered	Carbon Sequestered (MMTCE)
Coal	27.7	25.55	0.7	0.75	0.5
Natural Gas	391.4	14.47	5.7	1.00	5.7
Asphalt & Road Oil	1223.6	20.62	25.2	1.00	25.2
LPG	1651.3	16.86	27.8	0.80	22.3
Lubricants	354.4	20.24	7.2	0.50	3.6
Pentanes Plus	295.4	18.24	5.4	0.80	4.3
Petrochemical Feedstocks	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	15.9
Petroleum Coke	179.0	27.85	5.0	0.50	2.5
Special Naptha	72.3	19.86	1.4	0	0.0
Waxes/Misc.	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	3.4
Misc. U.S. Territories Petroleum	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	0.2
Total					83.6

[1] Values for Misc. U.S. Territories Petroleum, Petrochemical Feedstocks and Waxes/Misc. are not shown because these categories are aggregates of numerous smaller components.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-6: Reference Approach CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Consumption (MMTCE unless otherwise noted)

Fuel Category	Potential Carbon Emissions	Carbon Sequestered	Net Carbon Emissions	Fraction Oxidized (percent)	CO₂ Emissions (MMTCE)	CO₂ Emissions (Tg)
Coal	548.0	0.5	547.5	99.0%	542.0	1,987.4
Petroleum	699.2	77.4	621.7	99.0%	615.5	2,256.9
Natural Gas	326.7	5.7	321.0	99.5%	319.4	1,171.1
Total	1,573.9	83.6	1,490.2	-	1,476.9	5,415.4

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-7: 1997 Energy Consumption in the United States: Sectoral vs. Reference Approaches (TBtu)

Approach	Coal	Natural Gas	Petroleum	Total
Sectoral ^a	20,931.8	22,575.3	35,632.8	79,140.0
Reference (Apparent) ^a	21,011.1	22,575.7	35,272.4	78,859.3
Difference	0.4%	0.0%	-1.0%	-0.4%

^a Includes U.S. territories

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-8: 1997 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Estimating Approach (MMTCE)

Approach	Coal	Natural Gas	Petroleum	Total
Sectoral ^a	533.3	319.4	613.3	1,465.9
Reference ^a	542.0	319.4	615.5	1,476.9
Difference	1.6%	0.0%	0.4%	0.8%

^a Includes U.S. territories

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-9: 1996 Energy Consumption in the United States: Sectoral vs. Reference Approaches (TBtu)

Approach	Coal	Natural Gas	Petroleum	Total
Sectoral ^a	20,459	22,552	35,170	78,181
Reference (Apparent) ^a	20,334	22,547	34,642	77,523
Difference	-0.6%	0.0%	-1.5%	-0.8%

^a Includes U.S. territories

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table O-10: 1996 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Estimating Approach (MMTCE)

Approach	Coal	Natural Gas	Petroleum	Total
Sectoral ^a	521.1	319.3	607.2	1,447.7
Reference ^a	524.7	319.3	605.6	1,449.5
Difference	0.7%	0.0%	-0.3%	0.1%

^a Includes U.S. territories

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Annex P

Sources of Greenhouse Gas Emissions Excluded

Although this report is intended to be a comprehensive assessment of anthropogenic²² sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions for the United States, certain sources have been identified yet excluded from the estimates presented for various reasons. Before discussing these sources, however, it is important to note that processes or activities that are not *anthropogenic in origin* or do not result in a *net source or sink* of greenhouse gas emissions are intentionally excluded from a national inventory of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. In general, processes or activities that are not anthropogenic are considered natural (i.e., not directly influenced by human activity) in origin and, as an example, would include the following:

- Volcanic eruptions
- CO₂ exchange (i.e., uptake or release) by oceans
- Natural forest fires²³
- CH₄ emissions from wetlands not affected by human induced land-use changes

Some processes or activities may be anthropogenic in origin but do not result in net emissions of greenhouse gases, such as the respiration of CO₂ by people or domesticated animals. Given a source category that is both anthropogenic and results in net greenhouse gas emissions, reasons for excluding a source related to an anthropogenic activity include one or more of the following:

- There is insufficient scientific understanding to develop a reliable method for estimating emissions at a national level.
- Although an estimating method has been developed, data were not adequately available to calculate emissions.
- Emissions were implicitly accounted for within another source category (e.g., CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion).

It is also important to note that the United States believes the exclusion of the sources discussed below introduces only a minor bias in its overall estimate of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

CH₄, N₂O, and Criteria Pollutant Emissions from the Combustion of Jet Fuel

The combustion of jet fuel by aircraft results in emissions of CH₄, N₂O, CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs. The emissions per mass of fuel combusted during landing/take-off (LTO) operations differ from those during aircraft cruising. Accurate estimation of these emissions requires a detailed accounting of LTO cycles and fuel consumption during cruising by aircraft model (e.g., Boeing 747-400). Sufficient data for separately calculating near ground-level emissions during landing and take-off and cruise altitude emissions by aircraft model were not available for this report. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 1.93 - 1.96)

²² The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

²³ In some cases forest fires that are started either intentionally or unintentionally are viewed as mimicking natural burning processes which have been suppressed by other human forest management activities. The United States does not consider forest fires within its national boundaries to be a net source of greenhouse emissions.

Emissions from Bunker Fuels and Fossil Fuels Combusted Abroad by the U.S. Military

Emissions from fossil fuels combusted in military vehicles (i.e., ships, aircraft, and ground vehicles) may or may not be included in U.S. energy statistics. Domestic fuel sales to the military are captured in U.S. energy statistics; however, fuels purchased abroad for base operations and refueling of vehicles are not. It is not clear to what degree fuels purchased domestically are exported by the military to bases abroad.

Fuels combusted by military ships and aircraft while engaged in international transport or operations in international waters or airspace (i.e., flying or cruising in international airspace or waters) that is purchased domestically is included in U.S. energy statistics. Therefore, the United States may under report international bunker fuel emissions, and most likely over reports CO₂ emissions from transportation-related fossil fuel combustion by a similar amount. At this time, fuel consumption statistics from the Department of Defense are not adequately detailed to correct for this bias.²⁴

CO₂ from Burning in Coal Deposits and Waste Piles

Coal is periodically burned in deposits and waste piles. It has been estimated that the burning of coal in deposits and waste piles would represent less than 1.3 percent of total U.S. coal consumption (averaged over ten-years). Because there is currently no known source of data on the quantity of coal burned in waste piles and there is uncertainty as to the fraction of coal oxidized during such burnings, these CO₂ emissions are not currently estimated. Further research would be required to develop accurate emission factors and activity data for these emissions to be estimated. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 1.112 - 1.113)

Fossil CO₂ from Petroleum and Natural Gas Wells, CO₂ Separated from Natural Gas, and CO₂ from Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR)

Petroleum and natural gas well drilling, petroleum and natural gas production, and natural gas processing—including removal of CO₂—may result in emissions of CO₂ that was at one time stored in underground formations.

Carbon dioxide and other gases are naturally present in raw natural gas, in proportions that vary depending on the geochemical circumstances that caused the formation of the gas. After the heavier gases are removed, small amounts of carbon dioxide may be allowed to remain in the natural gas. If the amount of CO₂ sufficiently lowers the heating value of the natural gas, it is typically extracted by amine scrubbing and, in most cases, emitted into the atmosphere. These emissions can be estimated by calculating the difference between the average carbon dioxide content of raw natural gas and the carbon dioxide content of pipeline gas. The Energy Information Administration (EIA) estimates that annual CO₂ emissions from scrubbing are about 4 million metric tons of carbon. Because of imprecision in the reporting of U.S. natural gas production and processing, emissions estimates from energy production sources may be double-counted or under-reported, and thus are uncertain.

Carbon dioxide is also injected into underground deposits to increase crude oil reservoir pressure in a field technique known as enhanced oil recovery (EOR). It is thought that much of the injected CO₂ may be effectively and permanently sequestered, but the fraction of injected CO₂ that is re-released remains uncertain. The fraction re-released varies from well to well depending upon the field geology and the gas capture/re-injection technology employed at the wellhead. Over time, carbon dioxide may also seep into the producing well and mix with the oil and natural gas present there. If the gas portion of this mixture has a sufficiently high energy content, it may be collected and sent to a natural gas plant; if not, it may be vented or flared. The EIA estimates that the amount of CO₂ used for EOR is on the order of 12 million metric tons, of which emissions would be some fraction yet to be defined. This figure is based on the difference between U.S. Department of Commerce sales figures for industrial CO₂ (17 million metric tons) minus the 5 million metric tons reported by the Freedomia Group that is used for purposes other than EOR. Further research

²⁴ See the Defense Energy Support Center (formerly the Defense Fuel Supply Center), *Fact Book 1997*. [<http://www.desc.dla.mil/main/pulicati.htm>]

into EOR is required before the resulting CO₂ emissions can be adequately quantified. (See the discussion of the Carbon Dioxide Consumption source category in the Industrial Processes chapter).

Carbon Sequestration in Underground Injection Wells

Organic hazardous wastes are injected into underground wells. Depending on the source of these organic substances (e.g., derived from fossil fuels) the carbon in them may or may not be included in U.S. CO₂ emission estimates. Sequestration of carbon containing substances in underground injection wells may be an unidentified sink. Further research is required if this potential sink is to be quantified.

CH₄ from Abandoned Coal Mines

Abandoned coal mines are a source of CH₄ emissions. In general, many of the same factors that affect emissions from operating coal mines will affect emissions from abandoned mines such as the permeability and gassiness of the coal, the mine's depth, geologic characteristics, and whether it has been flooded. A few gas developers have recovered methane from abandoned mine workings; therefore, emissions from this source may be significant. Further research and methodological development is needed if these emissions are to be estimated.

CO₂ from "Unaccounted for" Natural Gas

There is a discrepancy between the amount of natural gas sold by producers and that reported as purchased by consumers. This discrepancy, known as "unaccounted for" or unmetered natural gas, was assumed to be the sum of leakage, measurement errors, data collection problems, undetected non-reporting, undetected over reporting, and undetected under reporting. Historically, the amount of gas sold by producers has always exceeded that reportedly purchased by consumers; therefore, some portion of unaccounted for natural gas was assumed to be a source of CO₂ emissions. (It was assumed that consumers were underreporting their usage of natural gas.) In DOE/EIA's energy statistics for 1996, however, reported consumption of natural gas exceeded the amount sold by producers. Therefore, the historical explanation given for this discrepancy has lost credibility and unaccounted for natural gas is no longer used to calculate CO₂ emissions.

CO₂ from Shale Oil Production

Oil shale is shale saturated with kerogen.²⁵ It can be thought of as the geological predecessor to crude oil. Carbon dioxide is released as a by-product of the process of producing petroleum products from shale oil. As of now, it is not cost-effective to mine and process shale oil into usable petroleum products. The only identified large-scale oil shale processing facility in the U.S. was operated by Unocal during the years 1985 to 1990. There have been no known emissions from shale oil processing in the United States since 1990 when the Unocal facility closed.

CH₄ from the Production of Carbides other than Silicon Carbide

Methane may be emitted from the production of carbides because the petroleum coke used in the process contains volatile organic compounds which form methane during thermal decomposition. Methane emissions from the production of silicon carbide were estimated and accounted for, but emissions from the production of calcium carbide and other carbides were not. Further research is needed to estimate CH₄ emissions from the production of calcium carbide and other carbides other than silicon carbide. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 2.20 - 2.21)

CO₂ from Calcium Carbide and Silicon Carbide Production

Carbon dioxide is formed by the oxidation of petroleum coke in the production of both calcium carbide and silicon carbide. These CO₂ emissions are implicitly accounted for with emissions from the combustion of petroleum

²⁵ Kerogen is fossilized insoluble organic material found in sedimentary rocks, usually shales, which can be converted to petroleum products by distillation.

coke in the Energy chapter. There is currently not sufficient data on coke consumption to estimate emissions from these sources explicitly. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 2.20 - 2.21)

CO₂ from Graphite Consumption in Ferroalloy and Steel Production

The CO₂ emissions from the three reducing agents used in ferroalloy and steel production—coke, wood (or biomass), and graphite—are accounted for as follows:

- Emissions resulting from the use of coke are accounted for in the Energy chapter under fossil fuel combustion.
- Estimating emissions from the use of wood or other biomass materials is unnecessary because these emissions should be accounted for in Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter if the biomass is harvested on an unsustainable basis.
- The CO₂ emissions from the use of graphite, which is produced from petroleum by-products, may be accounted for in the Energy chapter (further analysis is required to determine if these emissions are being properly estimated). The CO₂ emissions from the use of natural graphite, however, have not been accounted for in the estimate.

Emissions from graphite electrode consumption—versus its use as a reducing agent—in ferroalloy and steel production may at present only be accounted for in part under fossil fuel combustion if the graphite used was derived from a fossil fuel substrate (versus natural graphite ore). Further research into the source and total consumption of graphite for these purposes is required to explicitly estimate emissions. (see Iron and Steel Production and Ferroalloy Production in the Industrial Processes chapter)

N₂O from Caprolactam Production

Caprolactam is a widely used chemical intermediate, primarily to produce nylon-6. All processes for producing caprolactam involve the catalytic oxidation of ammonia, with N₂O being produced as a by-product. Caprolactam production could be a significant source of N₂O—it has been identified as such in the Netherlands. More research is required to determine this source's significance because there is currently insufficient information available on caprolactam production to estimate emissions in the United States. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 2.22 - 2.23)

N₂O from Cracking of Certain Oil Fractions

In order to improve the gasoline yield in crude oil refining, certain oil fractions are processed in a catcracker. Because crude oil contains some nitrogen, N₂O emissions may result from this cracking process. There is currently insufficient data to develop a methodology for estimating these emissions. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.23)

CH₄ from Coke Production

Coke production may result in CH₄ emissions. Detailed coke production statistics were not available for the purposes of estimating CH₄ emissions from this minor source. (see Petrochemical Production in the Industrial Processes chapter and the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.23)

CO₂ from Metal Production

Coke is used as a reducing agent in the production of some metals from their ores, including magnesium, chromium, lead, nickel, silicon, tin, titanium, and zinc. Carbon dioxide may be emitted during the metal's production from the oxidization of this coke and, in some cases, from the carbonate ores themselves (e.g., some magnesium ores contain carbonate). The CO₂ emissions from coke oxidation are accounted for in the Energy chapter under Fossil Fuel Combustion. The CO₂ emissions from the carbonate ores are not presently accounted for, but their quantities are thought to be minor. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.37 - 2.38)

N₂O from Acrylonitrile Production

Nitrous oxide may be emitted during acrylonitrile production. No methodology was available for estimating these emissions, and therefore further research is needed if these emissions are to be included. (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.22)

SF₆ from Aluminum Fluxing and Degassing

Occasionally, sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is used by the aluminum industry as a fluxing and degassing agent in experimental and specialized casting operations. In these cases it is normally mixed with argon, nitrogen, and/or chlorine and blown through molten aluminum; however, this practice is not used by primary aluminum production firms in the United States and is not believed to be extensively used by secondary casting firms. Where it does occur, the concentration of SF₆ in the mixture is small and a portion of the SF₆ is decomposed in the process (Waite and Bernard 1990, Corns 1990). It has been estimated that 230 Mg of SF₆ were used by the aluminum industry in the United States and Canada (Maiss and Brenninkmeijer 1998); however, this estimate is highly uncertain.

Miscellaneous SF₆ Uses

Sulfur hexafluoride may be used in gas-filled athletic shoes, in foam insulation, for dry etching, in laser systems, as an atmospheric tracer gas, for indoor air quality testing, for laboratory hood testing, for chromatography, in tandem accelerators, in sound-insulating windows, in tennis balls, in loudspeakers, in shock absorbers, and for certain biomedical applications. Data need to be gathered and methodologies developed if these emissions are to be estimated. A preliminary global assessment of aggregate emissions from these applications can be found in Maiss, M. and C.A.M. Brenninkmeijer (1998).

CO₂ from Solvent Incineration

CO₂ may be released during the incineration of solvents. Although emissions from this source are believed to be minor, data need to be gathered and methodologies developed if these emissions are to be estimated.

CO₂ from Non-Forest Soils

Non-forest soils emit CO₂ from decaying organic matter and carbonate minerals—the latter may be naturally present or mined and later applied to soils as a means to adjust their acidity. Soil conditions, climate, and land-use practices interact to affect the CO₂ emission rates from non-forest soils. The U.S. Forest Service has developed a model to estimate CO₂ emissions from forest soils, but no such model has been adequately developed for non-forest soils. Further research and methodological development is needed if these emissions are to be accurately estimated. (see *Changes in Non-Forest Carbon Stocks in the Land-Use Change and Forestry* chapter)

CH₄ from Land-Use Changes Including Wetlands Creation or Destruction

Wetlands are a known source of CH₄ emissions. When wetlands are destroyed, CH₄ emissions may be reduced. Conversely, when wetlands are created (e.g., during the construction of hydroelectric plants), CH₄ emissions may increase. Grasslands and forest lands may also be weak sinks for CH₄ due to the presence of methanotrophic bacteria that use CH₄ as an energy source (i.e., they oxidize CH₄ to CO₂). Currently, an adequate scientific basis for estimating these emissions and sinks does not exist, and therefore further research and methodological development is required.

CH₄ from Septic Tanks and Drainfields

Methane is produced during the biodegradation of organics in septic tanks if other suitable electron-acceptors (i.e., oxygen, nitrate, or sulfate) besides CO₂ are unavailable. Such conditions are called methanogenic. There were insufficient data and methodological developments available to estimate emissions from this source.

N₂O from Wastewater Treatment

As a result of nitrification and denitrification processes, N₂O may be produced and emitted from both domestic and industrial wastewater treatment plants. Nitrogen-containing compounds are found in wastewater due to the presence of both human excrement and other nitrogen-containing constituents (e.g. garbage, industrial wastes, dead animals, etc.). The portion of emitted N₂O which originates from human excrement is currently estimated under the Human Sewage source category—based upon average dietary assumptions. The portion of emitted N₂O which originates from other nitrogen-containing constituents is not currently estimated. Further research and methodological development is needed if these emissions are to be accurately estimated.

CH₄ from Industrial Wastewater

Methane may be produced during the biodegradation of organics in wastewater treatment if other suitable electron-acceptors (i.e. oxygen, nitrate, or sulfate) besides CO₂ are unavailable. Such conditions are called methanogenic. Methane produced from domestic wastewater treatment plants is accounted for in the Waste chapter. These emissions are estimated by assuming an average 5-day biological oxygen demand (BOD₅) per capita contribution in conjunction with the approximation that 15 percent of wastewater's BOD₅ is removed under methanogenic conditions. This method itself needs refinement. It is not clear if industrial wastewater sent to domestic wastewater treatment plants, which may contain biodegradable material, are accounted for in the average BOD₅ per capita method when this wastewater is sent to domestic wastewater treatment plants. Additionally, CH₄ emissions from methanogenic processes at industrial wastewater treatment plants are not currently estimated. Further research and methodological development is needed if these emissions are to be accurately estimated. (see Wastewater Treatment in the Waste chapter)

Annex Q

Constants, Units, and Conversions

Metric Prefixes

Although most activity data for the U.S. is gathered in customary U.S. units, these units are converted into metric units per international reporting guidelines. The following table provides a guide for determining the magnitude of metric units.

Table Q-1: Guide to Metric Unit Prefixes

Prefix/Symbol	Factor
atto (a)	10^{-18}
femto (f)	10^{-15}
pico (p)	10^{-12}
nano (n)	10^{-9}
micro (μ)	10^{-6}
milli (m)	10^{-3}
centi (c)	10^{-2}
deci (d)	10^{-1}
deca (da)	10
hecto (h)	10^2
kilo (k)	10^3
mega (M)	10^6
giga (G)	10^9
tera (T)	10^{12}
peta (P)	10^{15}
exa (E)	10^{18}

Unit Conversions

1 kilogram = 2.205 pounds
 1 pound = 0.454 kilograms
 1 short ton = 2,000 pounds = 0.9072 metric tons
 1 metric ton = 1,000 kilograms = 1.1023 short tons

1 cubic meter = 35.315 cubic feet
 1 cubic foot = 0.02832 cubic meters
 1 U.S. gallon = 3.785412 liters
 1 barrel (bbl) = 0.159 cubic meters
 1 barrel (bbl) = 42 U.S. gallons
 1 liter = 0.1 cubic meters

1 foot = 0.3048 meters
 1 meter = 3.28 feet
 1 mile = 1.609 kilometers
 1 kilometer = 0.622 miles

1 acre = 43,560 square feet = 0.4047 hectares = 4,047 square meters

1 square mile = 2.589988 square kilometers

To convert degrees Fahrenheit to degrees Celsius, subtract 32 and multiply by 5/9
 To convert degrees Celsius to Kelvin, add 273.15 to the number of Celsius degrees

Density Conversions²⁶

Methane	1 cubic meter	=	0.67606 kilograms
Carbon dioxide	1 cubic meter	=	1.85387 kilograms
Natural gas liquids	1 metric ton	=	11.6 barrels = 1,844.2 liters
Unfinished oils	1 metric ton	=	7.46 barrels = 1,186.04 liters
Alcohol	1 metric ton	=	7.94 barrels = 1,262.36 liters
Liquefied petroleum gas	1 metric ton	=	11.6 barrels = 1,844.2 liters
Aviation gasoline	1 metric ton	=	8.9 barrels = 1,415.0 liters
Naphtha jet fuel	1 metric ton	=	8.27 barrels = 1,314.82 liters
Kerosene jet fuel	1 metric ton	=	7.93 barrels = 1,260.72 liters
Motor gasoline	1 metric ton	=	8.53 barrels = 1,356.16 liters
Kerosene	1 metric ton	=	7.73 barrels = 1,228.97 liters
Naphtha	1 metric ton	=	8.22 barrels = 1,306.87 liters
Distillate	1 metric ton	=	7.46 barrels = 1,186.04 liters
Residual oil	1 metric ton	=	6.66 barrels = 1,058.85 liters
Lubricants	1 metric ton	=	7.06 barrels = 1,122.45 liters
Bitumen	1 metric ton	=	6.06 barrels = 963.46 liters
Waxes	1 metric ton	=	7.87 barrels = 1,251.23 liters
Petroleum coke	1 metric ton	=	5.51 barrels = 876.02 liters
Petrochemical feedstocks	1 metric ton	=	7.46 barrels = 1,186.04 liters
Special naphtha	1 metric ton	=	8.53 barrels = 1,356.16 liters
Miscellaneous products	1 metric ton	=	8.00 barrels = 1,271.90 liters

Energy Conversions

Converting Various Energy Units to Joules

The common energy unit used in international reports of greenhouse gas emissions is the joule. A joule is the energy required to push with a force of one Newton for one meter. A terajoule (TJ) is one trillion (10^{12}) joules. A British thermal unit (Btu, the customary U.S. energy unit) is the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of one pound of water one degree Fahrenheit at or near 39.2 Fahrenheit.

1 TJ = 2.388 x 10^{11} calories
 23.88 metric tons of crude oil equivalent
 947.8 million Btus
 277,800 kilowatt-hours

Converting Various Physical Units to Energy Units

Data on the production and consumption of fuels are first gathered in physical units. These units must be converted to their energy equivalents. The values in the following table of conversion factors can be used as default factors, if local data are not available. See Appendix A of EIA's *Annual Energy Review 1997* (EIA 1998) for more detailed information on the energy content of various fuels.

²⁶ Reference: EIA (1998a)

Table Q-2: Conversion Factors to Energy Units (heat equivalents)

Fuel Type (Units)	Factor
Solid Fuels (Million Btu/Short ton)	
Anthracite coal	22.573
Bituminous coal	23.89
Sub-bituminous coal	17.14
Lignite	12.866
Coke	24.8
Natural Gas (Btu/Cubic foot)	1,027
Liquid Fuels (Million Btu/Barrel)	
Crude oil	5.800
Natural gas liquids and LRGs	3.777
Other liquids	5.825
Motor gasoline	5.253
Aviation gasoline	5.048
Kerosene	5.670
Jet fuel, kerosene-type	5.670
Distillate fuel	5.825
Residual oil	6.287
Naphtha for petrochemicals	5.248
Petroleum coke	6.024
Other oil for petrochemicals	5.825
Special naphthas	5.248
Lubricants	6.065
Waxes	5.537
Asphalt	6.636
Still gas	6.000
Misc. products	5.796

Note: For petroleum and natural gas, *Annual Energy Review 1997* (EIA 1998b). For coal ranks, *State Energy Data Report 1992* (EIA 1993). All values are given in higher heating values (gross calorific values).

References

EIA (1998a) *Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States*, DOE/EIA-0573(97), Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy. Washington, D.C. October.

EIA (1998b) *Annual Energy Review*, DOE/EIA-0384(97), Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy. Washington, D.C. July.

EIA (1993) *State Energy Data Report 1992*, DOE/EIA-0214(93), Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy. Washington, D.C. December.

Annex R

Abbreviations

AFEAS	Alternative Fluorocarbon Environmental Acceptability Study
AAPFCO	American Association of Plant Food Control Officials
ASAE	American Society of Agricultural Engineers
BEA	Bureau of Economic Analysis, U.S. Department of Commerce
BOD ₅	Biochemical oxygen demand over a 5-day period
BTS	Bureau of Transportation Statistics, U.S. Department of Transportation
Btu	British thermal unit
CAAA	Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990
C&EN	Chemical and Engineering News
CFC	Chlorofluorocarbon
CMA	Chemical Manufacturers Association
CMOP	Coalbed Methane Outreach Program
CVD	Chemical vapor deposition
DIC	Dissolved inorganic carbon
DOC	U.S. Department of Commerce
DOD	U.S. Department of Defense
DOE	U.S. Department of Energy
DOT	U.S. Department of Transportation
EIA	Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FCCC	Framework Convention on Climate Change
FHWA	Federal Highway Administration
GAA	Governmental Advisory Associates
GHG	Greenhouse gas
GRI	Gas Research Institute
GSAM	Gas Systems Analysis Model
GWP	Global warming potential
HBFC	Hydrobromofluorocarbon
HCFC	Hydrochlorofluorocarbon
HDGV	Heavy duty gas vehicle
HDDV	Heavy duty diesel vehicle
HFC	Hydrofluorocarbon
HFE	Hydrofluoroethers
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization
IEA	International Energy Association
ILENR	Illinois Department of Energy and Natural Resources
IMO	International Maritime Organization
IPAA	Independent Petroleum Association of America
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LDDT	Light duty diesel truck
LDDV	Light duty diesel vehicle
LDGV	Light duty gas vehicle
LDGT	Light duty gas truck
LFG	Landfill gas
LPG	Liquefied petroleum gas(es)
MC	Motorcycle
MMTCE	Million metric tons of carbon equivalent
MSW	Municipal solid waste
NIAR	Norwegian Institute for Air Research
NMVOcs	Nonmethane volatile organic compounds

NO _x	Nitrogen Oxides
NVFEL	National Vehicle Fuel Emissions Laboratory
OAQPS	EPA Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards
ODS	Ozone depleting substances
OECD	Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development
OMS	EPA Office of Mobile Sources
ORNL	Oak Ridge National Laboratory
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
OTA	Office of Technology Assessment
PFC	Perfluorocarbon
PFPE	Perfluoropolyether
ppmv	Parts per million(10 ⁶) by volume
ppbv	Parts per billion (10 ⁹) by volume
pptv	Parts per trillion (10 ¹²) by volume
SAE	Society of Automotive Engineers
SNG	Synthetic natural gas
TBtu	Trillion Btu
TJ	Terajoule
TSDF	Hazardous waste treatment, storage, and disposal facility
TVA	Tennessee Valley Authority
U.S.	United States
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USFS	United States Forest Service
USGS	United States Geological Survey
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
VAIP	EPA's Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership
VMT	Vehicle miles traveled
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

Annex S

Chemical Symbols

Table S-1: Guide to Chemical Symbols

Symbol	Name
Al	Aluminum
Al ₂ O ₃	Aluminum Oxide
Br	Bromine
C	Carbon
CH ₄	Methane
C ₂ H ₆	Ethane
C ₃ H ₈	Propane
CF ₄	Perfluoromethane
C ₂ F ₆	Perfluoroethane, hexafluoroethane
C ₃ F ₈	Perfluoropropane
c-C ₄ F ₈	Perfluorocyclobutane
C ₅ F ₁₂	Perfluoropentane
C ₆ F ₁₄	Perfluorohexane
CF ₃ I	Trifluoroiodomethane
CFCl ₃	Trichlorofluoromethane (CFC-11)
CF ₂ Cl ₂	Dichlorodifluoromethane (CFC-12)
CF ₃ Cl	Chlorotrifluoromethane (CFC-13)
C ₂ F ₃ Cl ₃	Trichlorotrifluoroethane (CFC-113)*
CCl ₃ CF ₃	CFC-113a*
C ₂ F ₄ Cl ₂	Dichlorotetrafluoroethane (CFC-114)
C ₂ F ₅ Cl	Chloropentafluoroethane (CFC-115)
CHF ₂ Cl	Chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22)
C ₂ F ₃ HCl ₂	HCFC-123
C ₂ F ₄ HCl	HCFC-124
C ₂ FH ₃ Cl ₂	HCFC-141b
C ₂ H ₃ F ₂ Cl	HCFC-142b
C ₃ F ₅ HCl ₂	HCFC-225ca/cb
CCl ₄	Carbon tetrachloride
CHClCCl ₂	Trichloroethylene
CCl ₂ CCl ₂	Perchloroethylene, tetrachloroethene
CH ₃ Cl	Methylchloride
CH ₃ CCl ₃	Methylchloroform
CH ₂ Cl ₂	Methylenechloride
CHCl ₃	Chloroform, trichloromethane
CHF ₃	HFC-23
CH ₂ F ₂	HFC-32
CH ₃ F	HFC-41
C ₂ HF ₅	HFC-125
C ₂ H ₂ F ₄	HFC-134
CH ₂ FCF ₃	HFC-134a
C ₂ H ₃ F ₃	HFC-143*
C ₂ H ₃ F ₃	HFC-143a*
C ₂ H ₄ F ₂	HFC-152a
C ₃ HF ₇	HFC-227ea
C ₃ H ₂ F ₆	HFC-236fa
C ₃ H ₃ F ₅	HFC-245ca
C ₅ H ₂ F ₁₀	HFC-43-10mee
CH ₂ Br ₂	Dibromomethane
CH ₂ BrCl	Dibromochloromethane
CHBr ₃	Tribromomethane

CH ₃ Br	Methylbromide
CF ₂ BrCl	Bromodichloromethane (Halon 1211)
CF ₃ Br(CBrF ₃)	Bromotrifluoromethane (Halon 1301)
CO	Carbon monoxide
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
CaCO ₃	Calcium carbonate, Limestone
CaMg(CO ₃) ₂	Dolomite
CaO	Calcium oxide, Lime
Cl	atomic Chlorine
F	Fluorine
Fe	Iron
Fe ₂ O ₃	Ferric oxide
FeSi	Ferrosilicon
H, H ₂	atomic Hydrogen, molecular Hydrogen
H ₂ O	Water
H ₂ O ₂	Hydrogen peroxide
OH	Hydroxyl
N, N ₂	atomic Nitrogen, molecular Nitrogen
NH ₃	Ammonia
NH ₄ ⁺	Ammonium ion
HNO ₃	Nitric Acid
NF ₃	Nitrogen trifluoride
N ₂ O	Nitrous oxide
NO	Nitric oxide
NO ₂	Nitrogen dioxide
NO ₃	Nitrate radical
Na	Sodium
Na ₂ CO ₃	Sodium carbonate, soda ash
Na ₃ AlF ₆	Synthetic cryolite
O, O ₂	atomic Oxygen, molecular Oxygen
O ₃	Ozone
S	atomic Sulfur
H ₂ SO ₄	Sulfuric acid
SF ₆	Sulfur hexafluoride
SO ₂	Sulfur dioxide
Si	Silicon
SiC	Silicon carbide
SiO ₂	Quartz

* Distinct isomers.

Annex T

Glossary

Abiotic.⁷ Nonliving. Compare *biotic*.

Absorption of radiation.¹ The uptake of radiation by a solid body, liquid or gas. The absorbed energy may be transferred or re-emitted.

Acid deposition.⁶ A complex chemical and atmospheric process whereby recombined emissions of sulfur and nitrogen compounds are redeposited on earth in wet or dry form. See *acid rain*.

Acid rain.⁶ Rainwater that has an acidity content greater than the postulated natural pH of about 5.6. It is formed when sulfur dioxides and nitrogen oxides, as gases or fine particles in the atmosphere, combine with water vapor and precipitate as sulfuric acid or nitric acid in rain, snow, or fog. The dry forms are acidic gases or particulates. See *acid deposition*.

Acid solution.⁷ Any water solution that has more hydrogen ions (H⁺) than hydroxide ions (OH⁻); any water solution with a pH less than 7. See *basic solution*, *neutral solution*.

Acidic.⁷ See *acid solution*.

Adiabatic process.⁹ A thermodynamic change of state of a system such that no heat or mass is transferred across the boundaries of the system. In an adiabatic process, expansion always results in cooling, and compression in warming.

Aerosol.^{1&9} Particulate matter, solid or liquid, larger than a molecule but small enough to remain suspended in the atmosphere. Natural sources include salt particles from sea spray, dust and clay particles as a result of weathering of rocks, both of which are carried upward by the wind. Aerosols can also originate as a result of human activities and are often considered pollutants. Aerosols are important in the atmosphere as nuclei for the condensation of water droplets and ice crystals, as participants in various chemical cycles, and as absorbers and scatters of solar radiation, thereby influencing the radiation budget of the Earth's climate system. See *climate*, *particulate matter*.

Afforestation.² Planting of new forests on lands that have not been recently forested.

Air carrier⁸ An operator (e.g., airline) in the commercial system of air transportation consisting of aircraft that hold certificates of, Public Convenience and Necessity, issued by the Department of Transportation, to conduct scheduled or non-scheduled flights within the country or abroad.

Air pollutant. See *air pollution*.

Air pollution.⁷ One or more chemicals or substances in high enough concentrations in the air to harm humans, other animals, vegetation, or materials. Such chemicals or physical conditions (such as excess heat or noise) are called air pollutants.

Albedo.⁹ The fraction of the total solar radiation incident on a body that is reflected by it.

Alkalinity.⁶ Having the properties of a base with a pH of more than 7. A common alkaline is baking soda.

Alternative energy.⁶ Energy derived from nontraditional sources (e.g., compressed natural gas, solar, hydroelectric, wind).

Anaerobic.⁶ A life or process that occurs in, or is not destroyed by, the absence of oxygen.

Anaerobic decomposition.² The breakdown of molecules into simpler molecules or atoms by microorganisms that can survive in the partial or complete absence of oxygen.

Anaerobic lagoon.² A liquid-based manure management system, characterized by waste residing in water to a depth of at least six feet for a period ranging between 30 and 200 days. Bacteria produce methane in the absence of oxygen while breaking down waste.

Anaerobic organism.⁷ Organism that does not need oxygen to stay alive. See *aerobic organism*.

Antarctic "Ozone Hole."⁶ Refers to the seasonal depletion of stratospheric ozone in a large area over Antarctica. See *ozone layer*.

Anthracite.² A hard, black, lustrous coal containing a high percentage of fixed carbon and a low percentage of volatile matter. Often referred to as hard coal.

Anthropogenic.² Human made. In the context of greenhouse gases, emissions that are produced as the result of human activities.

Arable land.⁷ Land that can be cultivated to grow crops.

Aromatic.⁶ Applied to a group of hydrocarbons and their derivatives characterized by the presence of the benzene ring.

Ash.⁶ The mineral content of a product remaining after complete combustion.

Asphalt.² A dark-brown-to-black cement-like material containing bitumen as the predominant constituent. It is obtained by petroleum processing. The definition includes crude asphalt as well as the following finished products: cements, fluxes, the asphalt content of emulsions (exclusive of water), and petroleum distillates blended with asphalt to make cutback asphalt.

Atmosphere.¹ The mixture of gases surrounding the Earth. The Earth's atmosphere consists of about 79.1 percent nitrogen (by volume), 20.9 percent oxygen, 0.036 percent carbon dioxide and trace amounts of other gases. The atmosphere can be divided into a number of layers according to its mixing or chemical characteristics, generally determined by its thermal properties (temperature). The layer nearest the Earth is the *troposphere*, which reaches up to an altitude of about 8 kilometers (about 5 miles) in the polar regions and up to 17 kilometers (nearly 11 miles) above the equator. The *stratosphere*, which reaches to an altitude of about 50 kilometers (31 miles) lies atop the troposphere. The *mesosphere*, which extends from 80 to 90 kilometers atop the stratosphere, and finally, the *thermosphere*, or *ionosphere*, gradually diminishes and forms a fuzzy border with outer space. There is relatively little mixing of gases between layers.

Atmospheric lifetime. See *lifetime*.

Atomic weight.⁶ The average weight (or mass) of all the isotopes of an element, as determined from the proportions in which they are present in a given element, compared with the mass of the 12 isotope of carbon (taken as precisely 12.000), that is the official international standard; measured in daltons.

Atoms.⁷ Minute particles that are the basic building blocks of all chemical elements and thus all matter.

Aviation Gasoline.⁸ All special grades of gasoline for use in aviation reciprocating engines, as given in the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) specification D 910. Includes all refinery products within the gasoline range that are to be marketed straight or in blends as aviation gasoline without further processing (any refinery operation except mechanical blending). Also included are finished components in the gasoline range, which will be used for blending or compounding into aviation gasoline.

Bacteria.⁷ One-celled organisms. Many act as decomposers that break down dead organic matter into substances that dissolve in water and are used as nutrients by plants.

Barrel (bbl).⁶ A liquid-volume measure equal to 42 United States gallons at 60 degrees Fahrenheit; used in expressing quantities of petroleum-based products.

Basic solution.⁷ Water solution with more hydroxide ions (OH⁻) than hydrogen ions (H⁺); water solutions with pH greater than 7. See *acid solution*, *alkalinity*, *acid*.

Biodegradable.⁷ Material that can be broken down into simpler substances (elements and compounds) by bacteria or other decomposers. Paper and most organic wastes such as animal manure are biodegradable. See *nonbiodegradable*.

Biofuel.^{3&7} Gas or liquid fuel made from plant material (biomass). Includes wood, wood waste, wood liquors, peat, railroad ties, wood sludge, spent sulfite liquors, agricultural waste, straw, tires, fish oils, tall oil, sludge waste, waste alcohol, municipal solid waste, landfill gases, other waste, and ethanol blended into motor gasoline.

Biogeochemical cycle.⁷ Natural processes that recycle nutrients in various chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment. Examples are the carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorus, and hydrologic cycles.

Biological oxygen demand (BOD).⁷ Amount of dissolved oxygen needed by aerobic decomposers to break down the organic materials in a given volume of water at a certain temperature over a specified time period. See *BOD5*.

Biomass.⁷ Total dry weight of all living organisms that can be supported at each tropic level in a food chain. Also, materials that are biological in origin, including organic material (both living and dead) from above and below ground, for example, trees, crops, grasses, tree litter, roots, and animals and animal waste.

Biomass energy.¹ Energy produced by combusting biomass materials such as wood. The carbon dioxide emitted from burning biomass will not increase total atmospheric carbon dioxide if this consumption is done on a sustainable basis (i.e., if in a given period of time, regrowth of biomass takes up as much carbon dioxide as is released from biomass combustion). Biomass energy is often suggested as a replacement for fossil fuel combustion.

Biosphere.^{2&7} The living and dead organisms found near the earth's surface in parts of the lithosphere, atmosphere, and hydrosphere. The part of the global carbon cycle that includes living organisms and biogenic organic matter.

Biotic.⁷ Living. Living organisms make up the biotic parts of ecosystems. See *abiotic*.

Bitumen.⁷ Goopy, black, high-sulfur, heavy oil extracted from tar sand and then upgraded to synthetic fuel oil. See *tar sand*.

Bituminous coal.² A dense, black, soft coal, often with well-defined bands of bright and dull material. The most common coal, with moisture content usually less than 20 percent. Used for generating electricity, making coke, and space heating.

BOD5.² The biochemical oxygen demand of wastewater during decomposition occurring over a 5-day period. A measure of the organic content of wastewater. See *biological oxygen demand*.

British thermal unit (Btu).³ The quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of one pound of water one degree of Fahrenheit at or near 39.2 degrees Fahrenheit.

Bunker fuel.² Fuel supplied to ships and aircraft for international transportation, irrespective of the flag of the carrier, consisting primarily of residual and distillate fuel oil for ships and jet fuel for aircraft.

Bus.^{6&8} A rubber-tired, self-propelled, manually steered vehicle that is generally designed to transport 30 individuals or more. Bus types include intercity, school and transit.

Carbon black.² An amorphous form of carbon, produced commercially by thermal or oxidative decomposition of hydrocarbons and used principally in rubber goods, pigments, and printer's ink.

Carbon cycle.² All carbon reservoirs and exchanges of carbon from reservoir to reservoir by various chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes. Usually thought of as a series of the four main reservoirs of carbon interconnected by pathways of exchange. The four reservoirs, regions of the Earth in which carbon behaves in a systematic manner, are the atmosphere, terrestrial biosphere (usually includes freshwater systems), oceans, and sediments (includes fossil fuels). Each of these global reservoirs may be subdivided into smaller pools, ranging in size from individual communities or ecosystems to the total of all living organisms (biota).

Carbon dioxide.² A colorless, odorless, non-poisonous gas that is a normal part of the ambient air. Carbon dioxide is a product of fossil fuel combustion. Although carbon dioxide does not directly impair human health, it is a greenhouse gas that traps terrestrial (i.e., infrared) radiation and contributes to the potential for global warming. See *global warming*.

Carbon equivalent (CE).¹ A metric measure used to compare the emissions of the different greenhouse gases based upon their global warming potential (GWP). Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States are most commonly expressed as "million metric tons of carbon equivalents" (MMTCE). Global warming potentials are used to convert greenhouse gases to carbon dioxide equivalents. See *global warming potential, greenhouse gas*.

Carbon flux.⁹ The rate of exchange of carbon between pools (i.e., reservoirs).

Carbon intensity. The relative amount of carbon emitted per unit of energy or fuels consumed.

Carbon pool.⁹ The reservoir containing carbon as a principal element in the geochemical cycle.

Carbon sequestration.¹ The uptake and storage of carbon. Trees and plants, for example, absorb carbon dioxide, release the oxygen and store the carbon. Fossil fuels were at one time biomass and continue to store the carbon until burned. See *carbon sinks*.

Carbon sinks.¹ Carbon reservoirs and conditions that take-in and store more carbon (i.e., carbon sequestration) than they release. Carbon sinks can serve to partially offset greenhouse gas emissions. Forests and oceans are large carbon sinks. See *carbon sequestration*.

Carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄).¹¹ A compound consisting of one carbon atom and four chlorine atoms. It is an ozone depleting substance. Carbon tetrachloride was widely used as a raw material in many industrial applications, including the production of chlorofluorocarbons, and as a solvent. Solvent use was ended in the United States when it was discovered to be carcinogenic. See *ozone depleting substance*.

- Chemical reaction.**⁷ Interaction between chemicals in which there is a change in the chemical composition of the elements or compounds involved.
- Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs).**⁷ Organic compounds made up of atoms of carbon, chlorine, and fluorine. An example is CFC-12 (CCl₂F₂), used as a refrigerant in refrigerators and air conditioners and as a foam blowing agent. Gaseous CFCs can deplete the ozone layer when they slowly rise into the stratosphere, are broken down by strong ultraviolet radiation, release chlorine atoms, and then react with ozone molecules. See *Ozone Depleting Substance*.
- Climate.**^{1&9} The average weather, usually taken over a 30 year time period, for a particular region and time period. Climate is not the same as weather, but rather, it is the average pattern of weather for a particular region. Weather describes the short-term state of the atmosphere. Climatic elements include precipitation, temperature, humidity, sunshine, wind velocity, phenomena such as fog, frost, and hail-storms, and other measures of the weather. See *weather*.
- Climate change.**¹ The term “climate change” is sometimes used to refer to all forms of climatic inconsistency, but because the Earth's climate is never static, the term is more properly used to imply a significant change from one climatic condition to another. In some cases, “climate change” has been used synonymously with the term, “global warming”; scientists however, tend to use the term in the wider sense to also include natural changes in climate. See *global warming, greenhouse effect, enhanced greenhouse effect, radiative forcing*.
- Climate feedback.**¹ An atmospheric, oceanic, terrestrial, or other process that is activated by direct climate change induced by changes in radiative forcing. Climate feedbacks may increase (positive feedback) or diminish (negative feedback) the magnitude of the direct climate change.
- Climate lag.**¹ The delay that occurs in climate change as a result of some factor that changes very slowly. For example, the effects of releasing more carbon dioxide into the atmosphere may not be known for some time because a large fraction is dissolved in the ocean and only released to the atmosphere many years later.
- Climate sensitivity.**¹ The equilibrium response of the climate to a change in radiative forcing; for example, a doubling of the carbon dioxide concentration. See *radiative forcing*.
- Climate system (or Earth system).**¹ The atmosphere, the oceans, the biosphere, the cryosphere, and the geosphere, together make up the climate system.
- Coal.**² A black or brownish black solid, combustible substance formed by the partial decomposition of vegetable matter without access to air. The rank of coal, which includes anthracite, bituminous coal, subbituminous coal, and lignite, is based on fixed carbon, volatile matter, and heating value. Coal rank indicates the progressive alteration, or coalification, from lignite to anthracite. See *anthracite, bituminous coal, subbituminous coal, lignite*.
- Coal coke.**² A hard, porous product made from baking bituminous coal in ovens at temperatures as high as 2,000 degrees Fahrenheit. It is used both as a fuel and as a reducing agent in smelting iron ore in a blast furnace.
- Coal gasification.**⁷ Conversion of solid coal to synthetic natural gas (SNG) or a gaseous mixture that can be burned as a fuel.
- Coal liquefaction.**⁷ Conversion of solid coal to a liquid fuel such as synthetic crude oil or methanol.
- Coalbed methane.**² Methane that is produced from coalbeds in the same manner as natural gas produced from other strata. Methane is the principal component of natural gas.
- Co-control benefit.**¹⁰ It is the additional benefit derived from an environmental policy that is designed to control one type of pollution, while reducing the emissions of other pollutants as well. For example, a policy to reduce carbon dioxide emissions might reduce the combustion of coal, but when coal combustion is reduced, so too are the emissions of particulates and sulfur dioxide. The benefits associated with reductions in emissions of particulates and sulfur dioxide are the co-control benefits of reductions in carbon dioxide.
- Cogeneration.**⁷ Production of two useful forms of energy such as high-temperature heat and electricity from the same process.
- Combustion.**² Chemical oxidation accompanied by the generation of light and heat.
- Commercial sector.**⁸ An area consisting of non-housing units such as non-manufacturing business establishments (e.g., wholesale and retail businesses), health and educational institutions, and government offices.
- Compost.**⁷ Partially decomposed organic plant and animal matter that can be used as a soil conditioner or fertilizer.

Composting.⁷ Partial breakdown of organic plant and animal matter by aerobic bacteria to produce a material that can be used as a soil conditioner or fertilizer. See *compost*.

Compound.⁷ Combination of two or more different chemical elements held together by chemical bonds. See *element*. See *inorganic compound*, *organic compound*.

Concentration.⁷ Amount of a chemical in a particular volume or weight of air, water, soil, or other medium. See *parts per billion*, *parts per million*.

Conference Of Parties (COP).¹⁰ The supreme body of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). It comprises more than 170 nations that have ratified the Convention. Its first session was held in Berlin, Germany, in 1995 and is expected to continue meeting on a yearly basis. The COP's role is to promote and review the implementation of the Convention. It will periodically review existing commitments in light of the Convention's objective, new scientific findings, and the effectiveness of national climate change programs. See *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change*.

Conifer.⁷ See *coniferous trees*.

Coniferous trees.⁷ Cone-bearing trees, mostly evergreens, that have needle-shaped or scale-like leaves. They produce wood known commercially as softwood. See *deciduous trees*.

Criteria pollutant.² A pollutant determined to be hazardous to human health and regulated under EPA's National Ambient Air Quality Standards. The 1970 amendments to the Clean Air Act require EPA to describe the health and welfare impacts of a pollutant as the "criteria" for inclusion in the regulatory regime. In this report, emissions of the criteria pollutants CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂ are reported because they are thought to be precursors to greenhouse gas formation.

Crop residue.² Organic residue remaining after the harvesting and processing of a crop.

Crop rotation.⁷ Planting the same field or areas of fields with different crops from year to year to reduce depletion of soil nutrients. A plant such as corn, tobacco, or cotton, which remove large amounts of nitrogen from the soil, is planted one year. The next year a legume such as soybeans, which add nitrogen to the soil, is planted.

Crude oil.² A mixture of hydrocarbons that exist in liquid phase in underground reservoirs and remain liquid at atmospheric pressure after passing through surface separating facilities. See *petroleum*.

Deciduous trees.⁷ Trees such as oaks and maples that lose their leaves during part of the year. See *coniferous trees*.

Decomposition.⁹ The breakdown of matter by bacteria and fungi. It changes the chemical composition and physical appearance of the materials.

Deforestation.¹ Those practices or processes that result in the conversion of forested lands for non-forest uses. This is often cited as one of the major causes of the enhanced greenhouse effect for two reasons: 1) the burning or decomposition of the wood releases carbon dioxide; and 2) trees that once removed carbon dioxide from the atmosphere in the process of photosynthesis are no longer present.

Degradable.⁷ See *biodegradable*.

Desertification.¹ The progressive destruction or degradation of existing vegetative cover to form a desert. This can occur due to overgrazing, deforestation, drought, and the burning of extensive areas. Once formed, deserts can only support a sparse range of vegetation. Climatic effects associated with this phenomenon include increased reflectivity of solar radiation, reduced atmospheric humidity, and greater atmospheric dust (aerosol) loading.

Distillate fuel oil.² A general classification for the petroleum fractions produced in conventional distillation operations. Included are products known as No. 1, No. 2, and No. 4 fuel oils and No. 1, No. 2, and No. 4 diesel fuels. Used primarily for space heating, on and off-highway diesel engine fuel (including railroad engine fuel and fuel for agricultural machinery), and electric power generation.

Economy.⁷ System of production, distribution, and consumption of economic goods.

Ecosystem.¹⁰ The complex system of plant, animal, fungal, and microorganism communities and their associated non-living environment interacting as an ecological unit. Ecosystems have no fixed boundaries; instead their parameters are set to the scientific, management, or policy question being examined. Depending upon the purpose of analysis, a single lake, a watershed, or an entire region could be considered an ecosystem.

Electrons.⁷ Tiny particle moving around outside the nucleus of an atom. Each electron has one unit of negative charge (-) and almost no mass.

Element.⁷ Chemicals such as hydrogen (H), iron (Fe), sodium (Na), carbon (C), nitrogen (N), or oxygen (O), whose distinctly different atoms serve as the basic building blocks of all matter. There are 92 naturally occurring elements. Another 15 have been made in laboratories. Two or more elements combine to form compounds that make up most of the world's matter. See *compound*.

Emission inventory. A list of air pollutants emitted into a community's, state's, nation's, or the Earth's atmosphere in amounts per some unit time (e.g. day or year) by type of source. An emission inventory has both political and scientific applications.

Emissions coefficient/factor.² A unique value for scaling emissions to activity data in terms of a standard rate of emissions per unit of activity (e.g., grams of carbon dioxide emitted per barrel of fossil fuel consumed).

Emissions.² Releases of gases to the atmosphere (e.g., the release of carbon dioxide during fuel combustion). Emissions can be either intended or unintended releases. See *fugitive emissions*.

Energy conservation.⁷ Reduction or elimination of unnecessary energy use and waste. See *energy-efficiency*.

Energy intensity.⁵ Ratio between the consumption of energy to a given quantity of output; usually refers to the amount of primary or final energy consumed per unit of gross domestic product.

Energy quality.⁷ Ability of a form of energy to do useful work. High-temperature heat and the chemical energy in fossil fuels and nuclear fuels are concentrated high quality energy. Low-quality energy such as low-temperature heat is dispersed or diluted and cannot do much useful work.

Energy.³ The capacity for doing work as measured by the capability of doing work (potential energy) or the conversion of this capability to motion (kinetic energy). Energy has several forms, some of which are easily convertible and can be changed to another form useful for work. Most of the world's convertible energy comes from fossil fuels that are burned to produce heat that is then used as a transfer medium to mechanical or other means in order to accomplish tasks. In the United States, electrical energy is often measured in kilowatt-hours (kWh), while heat energy is often measured in British thermal units (Btu).

Energy-efficiency.^{6&8} The ratio of the useful output of services from an article of industrial equipment to the energy use by such an article; for example, vehicle miles traveled per gallon of fuel (mpg).

Enhanced greenhouse effect.¹ The concept that the natural greenhouse effect has been enhanced by anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases. Increased concentrations of carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide, CFCs, HFCs, PFCs, SF₆, NF₃, and other photochemically important gases caused by human activities such as fossil fuel consumption, trap more infra-red radiation, thereby exerting a warming influence on the climate. See *greenhouse gas, anthropogenic, greenhouse effect, climate*.

Enhanced oil recovery.⁷ Removal of some of the heavy oil left in an oil well after primary and secondary recovery. See *primary oil recovery, secondary oil recovery*.

Enteric fermentation.² A digestive process by which carbohydrates are broken down by microorganisms into simple molecules for absorption into the bloodstream of an animal.

Environment.⁷ All external conditions that affect an organism or other specified system during its lifetime.

Ethanol (C₂H₅OH).⁸ Otherwise known as ethyl alcohol, alcohol, or grain spirit. A clear, colorless, flammable oxygenated hydrocarbon with a boiling point of 78.5 degrees Celsius in the anhydrous state. In transportation, ethanol is used as a vehicle fuel by itself (E100), blended with gasoline (E85), or as a gasoline octane enhancer and oxygenate (10 percent concentration).

Evapotranspiration.¹⁰ The loss of water from the soil by evaporation and by transpiration from the plants growing in the soil, which rises with air temperature.

Exponential growth.⁷ Growth in which some quantity, such as population size, increases by a constant percentage of the whole during each year or other time period; when the increase in quantity over time is plotted, this type of growth yields a curve shaped like the letter J.

Feedlot.⁷ Confined outdoor or indoor space used to raise hundreds to thousands of domesticated livestock. See *rangeland*.

Fertilization, carbon dioxide.¹ An expression (sometimes reduced to 'fertilization') used to denote increased plant growth due to a higher carbon dioxide concentration.

Fertilizer.⁷ Substance that adds inorganic or organic plant nutrients to soil and improves its ability to grow crops, trees, or other vegetation. See *organic fertilizer*.

Flaring.⁹ The burning of waste gases through a flare stack or other device before releasing them to the air.

Fluidized bed combustion (FBC).⁷ Process for burning coal more efficiently, cleanly, and cheaply. A stream of hot air is used to suspend a mixture of powdered coal and limestone during combustion. About 90 to 98 percent of the sulfur dioxide produced during combustion is removed by reaction with limestone to produce solid calcium sulfate.

Fluorocarbons.¹ Carbon-fluorine compounds that often contain other elements such as hydrogen, chlorine, or bromine. Common fluorocarbons include chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), and perfluorocarbons (PFCs). See *chlorofluorocarbons, hydrochlorofluorocarbons, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons*.

Forcing mechanism.¹ A process that alters the energy balance of the climate system (i.e., changes the relative balance between incoming solar radiation and outgoing infrared radiation from Earth). Such mechanisms include changes in solar irradiance, volcanic eruptions, and enhancement of the natural greenhouse effect by emission of carbon dioxide.

Forest.⁷ Terrestrial ecosystem (biome) with enough average annual precipitation (at least 76 centimeters or 30 inches) to support growth of various species of trees and smaller forms of vegetation.

Fossil fuel. A general term for buried combustible geologic deposits of organic materials, formed from decayed plants and animals that have been converted to crude oil, coal, natural gas, or heavy oils by exposure to heat and pressure in the earth's crust over hundreds of millions of years. See *coal, petroleum, crude oil, natural gas*.

Fossil fuel combustion.¹ Burning of coal, oil (including gasoline), or natural gas. The burning needed to generate energy release carbon dioxide by-products that can include unburned hydrocarbons, methane, and carbon monoxide. Carbon monoxide, methane, and many of the unburned hydrocarbons slowly oxidize into carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Common sources of fossil fuel combustion include cars and electric utilities.

Freon. See *chlorofluorocarbon*.

Fugitive emissions.² Unintended gas leaks from the processing, transmission, and/or transportation of fossil fuels, CFCs from refrigeration leaks, SF₆ from electrical power distributor, etc.

Gasohol.⁷ Vehicle fuel consisting of a mixture of gasoline and ethyl or methyl alcohol; typically 10 to 23 percent ethanol by volume.

General Aviation.⁸ That portion of civil aviation, which encompasses all facets of aviation except air carriers. It includes any air taxis, commuter air carriers, and air travel clubs, which do not hold Certificates of Public Convenience and Necessity. See *air carriers*.

General circulation model (GCM).¹ A global, three-dimensional computer model of the climate system which can be used to simulate human-induced climate change. GCMs are highly complex and they represent the effects

of such factors as reflective and absorptive properties of atmospheric water vapor, greenhouse gas concentrations, clouds, annual and daily solar heating, ocean temperatures and ice boundaries. The most recent GCMs include global representations of the atmosphere, oceans, and land surface.

Geosphere.¹ The soils, sediments, and rock layers of the Earth's crust, both continental and beneath the ocean floors.

Geothermal energy.⁷ Heat transferred from the earth's molten core to under-ground deposits of dry steam (steam with no water droplets), wet steam (a mixture of steam and water droplets), hot water, or rocks lying fairly close to the earth's surface.

Global Warming Potential (GWP).¹ The index used to translate the level of emissions of various gases into a common measure in order to compare the relative radiative forcing of different gases without directly calculating the changes in atmospheric concentrations. GWPs are calculated as the ratio of the radiative forcing that would result from the emissions of one kilogram of a greenhouse gas to that from the emission of one kilogram of carbon dioxide over a period of time (usually 100 years). Gases involved in complex atmospheric chemical processes have not been assigned GWPs. See *lifetime*.

Global warming.¹⁰ The progressive gradual rise of the earth's surface temperature thought to be caused by the greenhouse effect and responsible for changes in global climate patterns. See *enhanced greenhouse effect, greenhouse effect, climate change*.

Grassland.⁷ Terrestrial ecosystem (biome) found in regions where moderate annual average precipitation (25 to 76 centimeters or 10 to 30 inches) is enough to support the growth of grass and small plants but not enough to support large stands of trees.

Greenhouse effect.⁷ Trapping and build-up of heat in the atmosphere (troposphere) near the earth's surface. Some of the heat flowing back toward space from the earth's surface is absorbed by water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, and several other gases in the atmosphere and then reradiated back toward the earth's surface. If the atmospheric concentrations of these greenhouse gases rise, the average temperature of the lower atmosphere will gradually increase. See *enhanced greenhouse effect, climate change, global warming*.

Greenhouse gas (GHG).¹ Any gas that absorbs infrared radiation in the atmosphere. Greenhouse gases include, but are not limited to, water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), ozone (O₃), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). See *carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, hydrochlorofluorocarbon, ozone, hydrofluorocarbon, perfluorocarbon, sulfur hexafluoride*.

Halocarbons.¹ Chemicals consisting of carbon, sometimes hydrogen, and either chlorine, fluorine, bromine or iodine.

Halons.¹ Compounds, also known as bromofluorocarbons, that contain bromine, fluorine, and carbon. They are generally used as fire extinguishing agents and cause ozone depletion. Bromine is many times more effective at destroying stratospheric ozone than chlorine. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Heat content.⁵ The amount of heat per unit mass released upon complete combustion.

Heat.⁷ Form of kinetic energy that flows from one body to another when there is a temperature difference between the two bodies. Heat always flows spontaneously from a hot sample of matter to a colder sample of matter. This is one way to state the second law of thermodynamics. See *temperature*.

Higher heating value.⁵ Quantity of heat liberated by the complete combustion of a unit volume or weight of a fuel assuming that the produced water vapor is completely condensed and the heat is recovered; also known as gross calorific value. See *lower heating value*.

Histosol.⁹ Wet organic soils, such as peats and mucks.

Hydrocarbons.¹ Substances containing only hydrogen and carbon. Fossil fuels are made up of hydrocarbons. Some hydrocarbon compounds are major air pollutants.

Hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs).¹ Compounds containing hydrogen, fluorine, chlorine, and carbon atoms. Although ozone depleting substances, they are less potent at destroying stratospheric ozone than chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). They have been introduced as temporary replacements for CFCs and are also greenhouse gases. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Hydroelectric power plant.⁷ Structure in which the energy of fading or flowing water spins a turbine generator to produce electricity.

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs).¹ Compounds containing only hydrogen, fluorine, and carbon atoms. They were introduced as alternatives to ozone depleting substances in serving many industrial, commercial, and personal

needs. HFCs are emitted as by-products of industrial processes and are also used in manufacturing. They do not significantly deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, but they are powerful greenhouse gases with global warming potentials ranging from 140 (HFC-152a) to 11,700 (HFC-23).

Hydrologic cycle. The process of evaporation, vertical and horizontal transport of vapor, condensation, precipitation, and the flow of water from continents to oceans. It is a major factor in determining climate through its influence on surface vegetation, the clouds, snow and ice, and soil moisture. The hydrologic cycle is responsible for 25 to 30 percent of the mid-latitudes' heat transport from the equatorial to polar regions.

Hydropower.⁷ Electrical energy produced by falling or flowing water. See *hydroelectric power plant*.

Hydrosphere.⁷ All the earth's liquid water (oceans, smaller bodies of fresh water, and underground aquifers), frozen water (polar ice caps, floating ice, and frozen upper layer of soil known as permafrost), and small amounts of water vapor in the atmosphere.

Industrial sector.⁸ Construction, manufacturing, agricultural and mining establishments.

Infrared radiation.¹ The heat energy that is emitted from all solids, liquids, and gases. In the context of the greenhouse issue, the term refers to the heat energy emitted by the Earth's surface and its atmosphere. Greenhouse gases strongly absorb this radiation in the Earth's atmosphere, and re-radiate some of it back towards the surface, creating the greenhouse effect.

Inorganic compound.⁷ Combination of two or more elements other than those used to form organic compounds. See *organic compound*.

Inorganic fertilizer.⁷ See *synthetic fertilizer*.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).¹ The IPCC was established jointly by the United Nations Environment Programme and the World Meteorological Organization in 1988. The purpose of the IPCC is to assess information in the scientific and technical literature related to all significant components of the issue of climate change. The IPCC draws upon hundreds of the world's expert scientists as authors and thousands as expert reviewers. Leading experts on climate change and environmental, social, and economic sciences from some 60 nations have helped the IPCC to prepare periodic assessments of the scientific underpinnings for understanding global climate change and its consequences. With its capacity for reporting on climate change, its consequences, and the viability of adaptation and mitigation measures, the IPCC is also looked to as the official advisory body to the world's governments on the state of the science of the climate change issue. For example, the IPCC organized the development of internationally accepted methods for conducting national greenhouse gas emission inventories.

Irreversibilities.¹⁰ Changes that, once set in motion, cannot be reversed, at least on human time scales.

Jet fuel⁸ Includes both naphtha-type and kerosene-type fuels meeting standards for use in aircraft turbine engines. Although most jet fuel is used in aircraft, some is used for other purposes such as generating electricity.

Joule.¹ The energy required to push with a force of one Newton for one meter.

Kerogen.⁷ Solid, waxy mixture of hydrocarbons found in oil shale, with a fine grained sedimentary rock. When the rock is heated to high temperatures, the kerogen is vaporized. The vapor is condensed and then sent to a refinery to produce gasoline, heating oil, and other products. See *oil shale, shale oil*.

Kerosene.² A petroleum distillate that has a maximum distillation temperature of 401 degrees Fahrenheit at the 10 percent recovery point, a final boiling point of 572 degrees Fahrenheit, and a minimum flash point of 100 degrees Fahrenheit. Used in space heaters, cookstoves, and water heaters, and suitable for use as an illuminant when burned in wick lamps.

Kyoto Protocol.¹⁰ This is an international agreement struck by 159 nations attending the Third Conference of Parties (COP) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (held in December of 1997 in Kyoto Japan) to reduce worldwide emissions of greenhouse gases. If ratified and put into force, individual countries have committed to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by a specified amount. See *Framework Convention on Climate Change, Conference of Parties*.

Landfill.⁷ Land waste disposal site in which waste is generally spread in thin layers, compacted, and covered with a fresh layer of soil each day.

Lifetime (atmospheric).¹ The lifetime of a greenhouse gas refers to the approximate amount of time it would take for the anthropogenic increment to an atmospheric pollutant concentration to return to its natural level (assuming emissions cease) as a result of either being converted to another chemical compound or being taken out of the

atmosphere via a sink. This time depends on the pollutant's sources and sinks as well as its reactivity. The lifetime of a pollutant is often considered in conjunction with the mixing of pollutants in the atmosphere; a long lifetime will allow the pollutant to mix throughout the atmosphere. Average lifetimes can vary from about a week (e.g., sulfate aerosols) to more than a century (e.g., CFCs, carbon dioxide). See *residence time*.

Light-duty vehicles.⁸ Automobiles and light trucks combined.

Lignite.² A brownish-black coal of low rank with high inherent moisture and volatile matter content, used almost exclusively for electric power generation. Also referred to as brown coal.

Liquefied natural gas (LNG).⁷ Natural gas converted to liquid form by cooling to a very low temperature.

Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG).² Ethane, ethylene, propane, propylene, normal butane, butylene, and isobutane produced at refineries or natural gas processing plants, including plants that fractionate new natural gas plant liquids.

Litter.⁹ Undecomposed plant residues on the soil surface. See *decomposition*.

Longwave radiation.⁹ The radiation emitted in the spectral wavelength greater than 4 micrometers corresponding to the radiation emitted from the Earth and atmosphere. It is sometimes referred to as terrestrial radiation or infrared radiation, although somewhat imprecisely. See *infrared radiation*.

Low Emission Vehicle (LEV).⁸ A vehicle meeting the low-emission vehicle standards.

Lower heating value.⁵ Quantity of heat liberated by the complete combustion of a unit volume or weight of a fuel assuming that the produced water remains as a vapor and the heat of the vapor is not recovered; also known as net calorific value. See *higher heating value*.

Lubricant.² A substance used to reduce friction between bearing surfaces or as a process material, either incorporated into other materials used as aids in manufacturing processes or as carriers of other materials. Petroleum lubricants may be produced either from distillates or residues. Other substances may be added to impart or improve useful properties. Does not include by-products of lubricating oil from solvent extraction or tars derived from de-asphalting. Lubricants include all grades of lubricating oils from spindle oil to cylinder oil and those used in greases. Lubricant categories are paraffinic and naphthenic.

Manure.⁷ Dung and urine of animals that can be used as a form of organic fertilizer.

Mass balance.⁹ The application of the principle of the conservation of matter.

Mauna Loa.⁹ An intermittently active volcano 13,680 feet (4,170 meters) high in Hawaii.

Methane (CH₄).¹ A hydrocarbon that is a greenhouse gas with a global warming potential most recently estimated at 21. Methane is produced through anaerobic (without oxygen) decomposition of waste in landfills, animal digestion, decomposition of animal wastes, production and distribution of natural gas and petroleum, coal production, and incomplete fossil fuel combustion. The atmospheric concentration of methane has been shown to be increasing at a rate of about 0.6 percent per year and the concentration of about 1.7 per million by volume (ppmv) is more than twice its pre-industrial value. However, the rate of increase of methane in the atmosphere may be stabilizing.

Methanol (CH₃OH).⁸ A colorless poisonous liquid with essentially no odor and little taste. It is the simplest alcohol with a boiling point of 64.7 degrees Celsius. In transportation, methanol is used as a vehicle fuel by itself (M100), or blended with gasoline (M85).

Methanotrophic.⁷ Having the biological capacity to oxidize methane to CO₂ and water by metabolism under aerobic conditions. See *aerobic*.

Methyl bromide (CH₃Br).¹¹ An effective pesticide; used to fumigate soil and many agricultural products. Because it contains bromine, it depletes stratospheric ozone when released to the atmosphere. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Metric ton.¹ Common international measurement for the quantity of greenhouse gas emissions. A metric ton is equal to 1000 kilograms, 2204.6 pounds, or 1.1023 short tons.

Mineral.⁷ Any naturally occurring inorganic substance found in the earth's crust as a crystalline solid.

Model year.⁸ Refers to the "sales" model year; for example, vehicles sold during the period from October 1 to the next September 31 is considered one model year.

Molecule.⁷ Chemical combination of two or more atoms of the same chemical element (such as O₂) or different chemical elements (such as H₂O).

Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer.¹¹ The Montreal Protocol and its amendments control the phaseout of ozone depleting substances production and use. Under the Protocol, several international organizations report on the science of ozone depletion, implement projects to help move away from ozone depleting substances, and provide a forum for policy discussions. In the United States, the Protocol is implemented under the rubric of the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. See *ozone depleting substance, ozone layer*.

Motor gasoline.² A complex mixture of relatively volatile hydrocarbons, with or without small quantities of additives, obtained by blending appropriate refinery streams to form a fuel suitable for use in spark-ignition engines. Motor gasoline includes both leaded and unleaded grades of finished gasoline, blending components, and gasohol.

Municipal solid waste (MSW).² Residential solid waste and some non-hazardous commercial, institutional, and industrial wastes. This material is generally sent to municipal landfills for disposal. See *landfill*.

Naphtha.² A generic term applied to a petroleum fraction with an approximate boiling range between 122 and 400 degrees Fahrenheit.

Natural gas.⁷ Underground deposits of gases consisting of 50 to 90 percent methane (CH₄) and small amounts of heavier gaseous hydrocarbon compounds such as propane (C₃H₈) and butane (C₄H₁₀).

Natural gas liquids (NGLs).² Those hydrocarbons in natural gas that are separated as liquids from the gas. Includes natural gas plant liquids and lease condensate.

Nitrogen cycle.⁷ Cyclic movement of nitrogen in different chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment.

Nitrogen fixation.⁷ Conversion of atmospheric nitrogen gas into forms useful to plants and other organisms by lightning, bacteria, and blue-green algae; it is part of the nitrogen cycle.

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x).¹ Gases consisting of one molecule of nitrogen and varying numbers of oxygen molecules. Nitrogen oxides are produced, for example, by the combustion of fossil fuels in vehicles and electric power plants. In the atmosphere, nitrogen oxides can contribute to formation of photochemical ozone (smog), impair visibility, and have health consequences; they are considered pollutants.

Nitrous oxide (N₂O).¹ A powerful greenhouse gas with a global warming potential most recently evaluated at 310. Major sources of nitrous oxide include soil cultivation practices, especially the use of commercial and organic fertilizers, fossil fuel combustion, nitric acid production, and biomass burning.

Nonbiodegradable.⁷ Substance that cannot be broken down in the environment by natural processes. See *biodegradable*.

Nonlinearities.¹⁰ Occur when changes in one variable cause a more than proportionate impact on another variable.

Non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs).² Organic compounds, other than methane, that participate in atmospheric photochemical reactions.

Non-point source.⁷ Large land area such as crop fields and urban areas that discharge pollutant into surface and underground water over a large area. See *point source*.

Nuclear electric power.³ Electricity generated by an electric power plant whose turbines are driven by steam generated in a reactor by heat from the fissioning of nuclear fuel.

Nuclear energy.⁷ Energy released when atomic nuclei undergo a nuclear reaction such as the spontaneous emission of radioactivity, nuclear fission, or nuclear fusion.

Oil shale.⁷ Underground formation of a fine-grained sedimentary rock containing varying amounts of kerogen, a solid, waxy mixture of hydrocarbon compounds. Heating the rock to high temperatures converts the kerogen to a vapor, which can be condensed to form a slow flowing heavy oil called shale oil. See *kerogen, shale oil*.

Oil. See *crude oil, petroleum*.

Ore.⁷ Mineral deposit containing a high enough concentration of at least one metallic element to permit the metal to be extracted and sold at a profit.

Organic compound.⁷ Molecule that contains atoms of the element carbon, usually combined with itself and with atoms of one or more other element such as hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, phosphorus, chlorine, or fluorine. See *inorganic compound*.

Organic fertilizer.⁷ Organic material such as manure or compost, applied to cropland as a source of plant nutrients.

- Oxidize.**² To chemically transform a substance by combining it with oxygen.
- Oxygen cycle.**⁷ Cyclic movement of oxygen in different chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment.
- Ozone.**⁶ A colorless gas with a pungent odor, having the molecular form of O₃, found in two layers of the atmosphere, the stratosphere and the troposphere. Ozone is a form of oxygen found naturally in the stratosphere that provides a protective layer shielding the Earth from ultraviolet radiation's harmful health effects on humans and the environment. In the troposphere, ozone is a chemical oxidant and major component of photochemical smog. Ozone can seriously affect the human respiratory system.
- Ozone Depleting Substance (ODS).**¹¹ A family of man-made compounds that includes, but are not limited to, chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), bromofluorocarbons (halons), methyl chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, methyl bromide, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs). These compounds have been shown to deplete stratospheric ozone, and therefore are typically referred to as ODSs.
- Ozone layer.**⁷ Layer of gaseous ozone (O₃) in the stratosphere that protects life on earth by filtering out harmful ultraviolet radiation from the sun. See *stratosphere, ultraviolet radiation*.
- Ozone precursors.**² Chemical compounds, such as carbon monoxide, methane, non-methane hydrocarbons, and nitrogen oxides, which in the presence of solar radiation react with other chemical compounds to form ozone, mainly in the troposphere. See *troposphere*
- Particulate matter (PM).**⁷ Solid particles or liquid droplets suspended or carried in the air.
- Particulates.** See *particulate matter*.
- Parts per billion (ppb).**⁷ Number of parts of a chemical found in one billion parts of a particular gas, liquid, or solid mixture. See *concentration*.
- Parts per million (ppm).**⁷ Number of parts of a chemical found in one million parts of a particular gas, liquid, or solid. See *concentration*.
- Pentanes plus.**² A mixture of hydrocarbons, mostly pentanes and heavier fractions, extracted from natural gas.
- Perfluorocarbons (PFCs).**¹ A group of human-made chemicals composed of carbon and fluorine only. These chemicals (predominantly CF₄ and C₂F₆) were introduced as alternatives, along with hydrofluorocarbons, to the ozone depleting substances. In addition, PFCs are emitted as by-products of industrial processes and are also used in manufacturing. PFCs do not harm the stratospheric ozone layer, but they are powerful greenhouse gases: CF₄ has a global warming potential (GWP) of 6,500 and C₂F₆ has a GWP of 9,200.
- Petrochemical feedstock.**² Feedstock derived from petroleum, used principally for the manufacture of chemicals, synthetic rubber, and a variety of plastics. The categories reported are naphtha (endpoint less than 401 degrees Fahrenheit) and other oils (endpoint equal to or greater than 401 degrees Fahrenheit).
- Petrochemicals.**⁷ Chemicals obtained by refining (i.e., distilling) crude oil. They are used as raw materials in the manufacture of most industrial chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, plastics, synthetic fibers, paints, medicines, and many other products. See *crude oil*.
- Petroleum coke.**² A residue that is the final product of the condensation process in cracking.
- Petroleum.**² A generic term applied to oil and oil products in all forms, such as crude oil, lease condensate, unfinished oils, petroleum products, natural gas plant liquids, and non-hydrocarbon compounds blended into finished petroleum products. See *crude oil*.
- Photosynthesis.**⁷ Complex process that takes place in living green plant cells. Radiant energy from the sun is used to combine carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water (H₂O) to produce oxygen (O₂) and simple nutrient molecules, such as glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆).
- Photovoltaic and solar thermal energy.**² Energy radiated by the sun as electromagnetic waves (electromagnetic radiation) that is converted into electricity by means of solar (i.e., photovoltaic) cells or useable heat by concentrating (i.e., focusing) collectors.
- Point source.**⁷ A single identifiable source that discharges pollutants into the environment. Examples are smokestack, sewer, ditch, or pipe. See *non-point source*.
- Pollution.**⁷ A change in the physical, chemical, or biological characteristics of the air, water, or soil that can affect the health, survival, or activities of humans in an unwanted way. Some expand the term to include harmful effects on all forms of life.

Polyvinyl chloride (PVC).² A polymer of vinyl chloride. It is tasteless, odorless and insoluble in most organic solvents. A member of the family vinyl resin, used in soft flexible films for food packaging and in molded rigid products, such as pipes, fibers, upholstery, and bristles.

Population.⁷ Group of individual organisms of the same species living within a particular area.

Prescribed burning.⁷ Deliberate setting and careful control of surface fires in forests to help prevent more destructive fires and to kill off unwanted plants that compete with commercial species for plant nutrients; may also be used on grasslands.

Primary oil recovery.⁷ Pumping out the crude oil that flows by gravity into the bottom of an oil well. See *enhanced oil recovery, secondary oil recovery*.

Quad.⁸ Quad stands for quadrillion, which is, 10^{15} .

Radiation.¹ Energy emitted in the form of electromagnetic waves. Radiation has differing characteristics depending upon the wavelength. Because the radiation from the Sun is relatively energetic, it has a short wavelength (e.g., ultraviolet, visible, and near infrared) while energy re-radiated from the Earth's surface and the atmosphere has a longer wavelength (e.g., infrared radiation) because the Earth is cooler than the Sun. See *ultraviolet radiation, infrared radiation, solar radiation, longwave radiation, terrestrial radiation*.

Radiative forcing.¹ A change in the balance between incoming solar radiation and outgoing infrared (i.e., thermal) radiation. Without any radiative forcing, solar radiation coming to the Earth would continue to be approximately equal to the infrared radiation emitted from the Earth. The addition of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere traps an increased fraction of the infrared radiation, reradiating it back toward the surface of the Earth and thereby creates a warming influence.

Rail.⁸ Includes “heavy” and “light” transit rail. Heavy transit rail is characterized by exclusive rights-of-way, multi-car trains, high speed rapid acceleration, sophisticated signaling, and high platform loading. Also known as subway, elevated railway, or metropolitan railway (metro). Light transit rail may be on exclusive or shared rights of way, high or low platform, multi-car trains or single cars, automated or manually operated. In generic usage, light rail includes streetcars, trolley cars, and tramways.

Rangeland.⁷ Land, mostly grasslands, whose plants can provide food (i.e., forage) for grazing or browsing animals. See *feedlot*.

Recycling.⁷ Collecting and reprocessing a resource so it can be used again. An example is collecting aluminum cans, melting them down, and using the aluminum to make new cans or other aluminum products.

Reforestation.² Replanting of forests on lands that have recently been harvested.

Renewable energy.² Energy obtained from sources that are essentially inexhaustible, unlike, for example, the fossil fuels, of which there is a finite supply. Renewable sources of energy include wood, waste, geothermal, wind, photovoltaic, and solar thermal energy. See *hydropower, photovoltaic*.

Residence time.¹ Average time spent in a reservoir by an individual atom or molecule. Also, this term is used to define the age of a molecule when it leaves the reservoir. With respect to greenhouse gases, residence time usually refers to how long a particular molecule remains in the atmosphere. See *lifetime*.

Residential sector.³ An area or portion consisting only of housing units.

Residual fuel oil.² The heavier oils that remain after the distillate fuel oils and lighter hydrocarbons are distilled away in refinery operations and that conform to ASTM Specifications D396 and D975. Included are No. 5, a residual fuel oil of medium viscosity; Navy Special, for use in steam-powered vessels in government service and in shore power plants; and No. 6, which includes Bunker C fuel oil and is used for commercial and industrial heating, electricity generation, and to power ships. Imports of residual fuel oil include imported crude oil burned as fuel.

Secondary oil recovery.⁷ Injection of water into an oil well after primary oil recovery to force out some of the remaining thicker crude oil. See *enhanced oil recovery, primary oil recovery*.

Sector. Division, most commonly used to denote type of energy consumer (e.g., residential) or according to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, the type of greenhouse gas emitter (e.g. industrial process). See *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*.

Septic tank.⁷ Underground tank for treatment of wastewater from a home in rural and suburban areas. Bacteria in the tank decompose organic wastes and the sludge settles to the bottom of the tank. The effluent flows out of the tank into the ground through a field of drainpipes.

Sewage treatment (primary).⁷ Mechanical treatment of sewage in which large solids are filtered out by screens and suspended solids settle out as sludge in a sedimentation tank.

Shale oil.⁷ Slow-flowing, dark brown, heavy oil obtained when kerogen in oil shale is vaporized at high temperatures and then condensed. Shale oil can be refined to yield gasoline, heating oil, and other petroleum products. See *kerogen, oil shale*.

Short ton.¹ Common measurement for a ton in the United States. A short ton is equal to 2,000 lbs. or 0.907 metric tons.

Sink.¹ A reservoir that uptakes a pollutant from another part of its cycle. Soil and trees tend to act as natural sinks for carbon.

Sludge.⁷ Goopy solid mixture of bacteria and virus laden organic matter, toxic metals, synthetic organic chemicals, and solid chemicals removed from wastewater at a sewage treatment plant.

Soil.⁷ Complex mixture of inorganic minerals (i.e., mostly clay, silt, and sand), decaying organic matter, water, air, and living organisms.

Soil carbon.⁹ A major component of the terrestrial biosphere pool in the carbon cycle. The amount of carbon in the soil is a function of the historical vegetative cover and productivity, which in turn is dependent in part upon climatic variables.

Solar energy.⁷ Direct radiant energy from the sun. It also includes indirect forms of energy such as wind, falling or flowing water (hydropower), ocean thermal gradients, and biomass, which are produced when direct solar energy interact with the earth. See *solar radiation*.

Solar radiation.¹ Energy from the Sun. Also referred to as short-wave radiation. Of importance to the climate system, solar radiation includes ultra-violet radiation, visible radiation, and infrared radiation.

Source.⁴ Any process or activity that releases a greenhouse gas, an aerosol, or a precursor of a greenhouse gas into the atmosphere.

Special naphtha.² All finished products within the naphtha boiling range that are used as paint thinners, cleaners, or solvents. Those products are refined to a specified flash point.

Still gas.² Any form or mixture of gases produced in refineries by distillation, cracking, reforming, and other processes. Principal constituents are methane, ethane, ethylene, normal butane, butylene, propane, propylene, etc. Used as a refinery fuel and as a petrochemical feedstock.

Stratosphere.⁷ Second layer of the atmosphere, extending from about 19 to 48 kilometers (12 to 30 miles) above the earth's surface. It contains small amounts of gaseous ozone (O₃), which filters out about 99 percent of the incoming harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation. Most commercial airline flights operate at a cruising altitude in the lower stratosphere. See *ozone layer, ultraviolet radiation*.

Stratospheric ozone. See *ozone layer*.

Strip mining.⁷ Cutting deep trenches to remove minerals such as coal and phosphate found near the earth's surface in flat or rolling terrain. See *surface mining*.

Subbituminous coal.² A dull, black coal of rank intermediate between lignite and bituminous coal.

Sulfur cycle.⁷ Cyclic movement of sulfur in different chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment.

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂).¹ A compound composed of one sulfur and two oxygen molecules. Sulfur dioxide emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes is changed in a complex series of chemical reactions in the atmosphere to sulfate aerosols. These aerosols are believed to result in negative radiative forcing (i.e., tending to cool the Earth's surface) and do result in acid deposition (e.g., acid rain). See *aerosols, radiative forcing, acid deposition, acid rain*.

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆).¹ A colorless gas soluble in alcohol and ether, slightly soluble in water. A very powerful greenhouse gas used primarily in electrical transmission and distribution systems and as a dielectric in electronics. The global warming potential of SF₆ is 23,900. See *Global Warming Potential*.

Surface mining.⁷ Removal of soil, sub-soil, and other strata and then extracting a mineral deposit found fairly close to the earth's surface. See *strip mining*.

Synthetic fertilizer.⁷ Commercially prepared mixtures of plant nutrients such as nitrates, phosphates, and potassium applied to the soil to restore fertility and increase crop yields. See *organic fertilizer*.

Synthetic natural gas (SNG).³ A manufactured product chemically similar in most respects to natural gas, resulting from the conversion or reforming of petroleum hydrocarbons. It may easily be substituted for, or interchanged with, pipeline quality natural gas.

Tailings.⁷ Rock and other waste materials removed as impurities when minerals are mined and mineral deposits are processed. These materials are usually dumped on the ground or into ponds.

Tar sand.⁷ Swamp-like deposit of a mixture of fine clay, sand, water, and variable amounts of tar-like heavy oil known as bitumen. Bitumen can be extracted from tar sand by heating. It can then be purified and upgraded to synthetic crude oil. See *bitumen*.

Temperature.⁷ Measure of the average speed of motion of the atoms or molecules in a substance or combination of substances at a given moment. See *heat*.

Terrestrial.⁷ Pertaining to land.

Terrestrial radiation.⁹ The total infrared radiation emitted by the Earth and its atmosphere in the temperature range of approximately 200 to 300 Kelvin. Terrestrial radiation provides a major part of the potential energy changes necessary to drive the atmospheric wind system and is responsible for maintaining the surface air temperature within limits of livability.

Trace gas.¹ Any one of the less common gases found in the Earth's atmosphere. Nitrogen, oxygen, and argon make up more than 99 percent of the Earth's atmosphere. Other gases, such as carbon dioxide, water vapor, methane, oxides of nitrogen, ozone, and ammonia, are considered trace gases. Although relatively unimportant in terms of their absolute volume, they have significant effects on the Earth's weather and climate.

Transportation sector.⁸ Consists of private and public passenger and freight transportation, as well as government transportation, including military operations.

Troposphere.^{1&7} The lowest layer of the atmosphere and contains about 95 percent of the mass of air in the Earth's atmosphere. The troposphere extends from the Earth's surface up to about 10 to 15 kilometers. All weather processes take place in the troposphere. Ozone that is formed in the troposphere plays a significant role in both the greenhouse gas effect and urban smog. See *ozone precursor, stratosphere, atmosphere*.

Tropospheric ozone precursor. See *ozone precursor*.

Tropospheric ozone.¹ See *ozone*.

Ultraviolet radiation (UV).¹¹ A portion of the electromagnetic spectrum with wavelengths shorter than visible light. The sun produces UV, which is commonly split into three bands of decreasing wavelength. Shorter wavelength radiation has a greater potential to cause biological damage on living organisms. The longer wavelength ultraviolet band, UVA, is not absorbed by ozone in the atmosphere. UVB is mostly absorbed by ozone, although some reaches the Earth. The shortest wavelength band, UVC, is completely absorbed by ozone and normal oxygen in the atmosphere.

Unfinished oils.³ All oils requiring further refinery processing, except those requiring only mechanical blending. Includes naphtha and lighter oils, kerosene and light gas oils, heavy gas oils, and residuum.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).¹ The international treaty unveiled at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in June 1992. The UNFCCC commits signatory countries to stabilize anthropogenic (i.e. human-induced) greenhouse gas emissions to "levels that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system". The UNFCCC also requires that all signatory parties develop and update national inventories of anthropogenic emissions of all greenhouse gases not otherwise controlled by the Montreal Protocol. Out of 155 countries that have ratified this accord, the United States was the first industrialized nation to do so.

Vehicle miles traveled (VMT).⁸ One vehicle traveling the distance of one mile. Thus, total vehicle miles is the total mileage traveled by all vehicles.

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs).⁶ Organic compounds that evaporate readily into the atmosphere at normal temperatures. VOCs contribute significantly to photochemical smog production and certain health problems. See *non-methane volatile organic compounds*.

Wastewater.² Water that has been used and contains dissolved or suspended waste materials. See *sewage treatment*.

Water vapor.¹ The most abundant greenhouse gas; it is the water present in the atmosphere in gaseous form. Water vapor is an important part of the natural greenhouse effect. While humans are not significantly increasing its concentration, it contributes to the enhanced greenhouse effect because the warming influence of greenhouse

gases leads to a positive water vapor feedback. In addition to its role as a natural greenhouse gas, water vapor plays an important role in regulating the temperature of the planet because clouds form when excess water vapor in the atmosphere condenses to form ice and water droplets and precipitation.

Waxes.² Solid or semisolid materials derived from petroleum distillates or residues. Light-colored, more or less translucent crystalline masses, slightly greasy to the touch, consisting of a mixture of solid hydrocarbons in which the paraffin series predominates. Included are all marketable waxes, whether crude scale or fully refined. Used primarily as industrial coating for surface protection.

Weather.¹ Weather is the specific condition of the atmosphere at a particular place and time. It is measured in terms of such things as wind, temperature, humidity, atmospheric pressure, cloudiness, and precipitation. In most places, weather can change from hour-to-hour, day-to-day, and season-to-season. Climate is the average of weather over time and space. A simple way of remembering the difference is that climate is what you expect (e.g. cold winters) and 'weather' is what you get (e.g. a blizzard). See *climate*.

Wetland.⁷ Land that stays flooded all or part of the year with fresh or salt water.

Wetlands.² Areas regularly saturated by surface or groundwater and subsequently characterized by a prevalence of vegetation adapted for life in saturated-soil conditions.

Wood energy.² Wood and wood products used as fuel, including roundwood (i.e., cordwood), limbwood, wood chips, bark, sawdust, forest residues, and charcoal.

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